J.K. Samal

HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN ORISSA

— 1905-1936 —



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: About the Book :

After 1905 Orissa entered into the main stream of India's national life. Two main features which became conspicuous after 1905 were, first, the Utkal Union Movement for the unification of all Oriya speaking areas and secondly, the National Movement for freedom. Under the impact of these two movements, the various reformative measures were taken by the British administration with a view to bringining about educational development in Orissa. This work is a comprehensive, critical and compact study of the main features of the process leading to the quantitative and qualitative growth of education in Orissa from 1905-1936.

Even though quantitative growth was far from satisfactory by 1936, the qualitative improvement had received a standard shape. On the basis of those qualitative achievements, the quantitative expansion became almost phenomenal in the Post-Independance Era.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN ORISSA

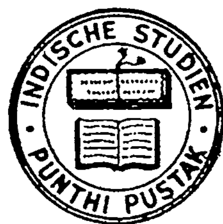
—1905-1936—

ORISSA STUDIES PROJECT NO. 19

HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN ORISSA

—1905-1936—

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TO

MY MOTHER

CHARUBALA SAMAL

PREFACE

The present work is the first historical study, strictly speaking, of the development of education in British Orissa during the period from 1905 to 1936. The period taken up for study in the following pages begins with the merger of Sambalpur in Orissa in 1905, and ends with the creation of the separate province of Orissa in 1936. Orissa formed a Division in the province of Bengal from 1803 to 1912 and in the province of Bihar and Orissa from 1912 to 1936.

Orissa, during the period under review, contained mainly the four regulation districts of Balasore, Cuttack, Puri and Sambalpur, and one non-regulation district of Angul. The areas which constitute modern Orissa, besides the above noted five districts, were scattered under different political jurisdictions. The major part of those areas remained under a number of small chiefs who ruled in their inaccessible areas but acknowledged British suzerainty.

Although Orissa had been under British Administration since 1803, the education in Orissa was more backward than any other province of India of equal importance by 1866. There were in 1866 in all 77 schools of all grades and the number of pupils was 3,536.

The extremely backward state of education was mainly due to the indifference of Company's Government. There was total absence of any attempt on the part of the Government to provide the people with the means of education, even though vast sums were annually expended in other parts of Bengal. On the negligence of the Government to develop education, Dr. E. Roer, the Inspector of Schools, South-West Division, said : "It is to be regretted that no new educational operations can be carried out, for Orissa is at a disadvantage, compared with other districts. For the whole of Orissa, with an area of 52,995 square miles and a population of 4,534,813

souls, less is expended than for the small district of Howrah, with an area of 800 square miles, and a population of 7,50,000 souls······"

The Company's rule ended with the Revolt of 1857. With the transfer of power to the crown in 1858, the nature and content of administration did not change for the better abruptly. The legacies of the old system continued till a culminating tragedy occurred. The Orissa Famine of 1866 may be regarded as the epitome of the Company's unsympathetic administration.

In the terrible famine of 1866 it was well-known how the want of educated persons aggravated the sufferings of the people of Orissa. T. E. Ravenshaw wrote : "No other province in the presidency was so deficient of intelligent and public-spirited residents who would appreciate the facts bearing on the prospects and means of the people, and who could give practical information to authorities as would have been the case in any district of Bengal proper, and in carrying, out remedial measures". Government was well aware of the risk of a general want of the enlightenment of the people. After the famine, a policy of progress was adopted for the material and moral improvement of the people of Orissa. Measures were adopted for the spread of modern education in Orissa.

There existed numerous pathshalas or elementary village schools in the length and breadth of Orissa. Most of them did not conform to the standard prescribed by the education department. They were never inspected by the departmental authorities. The mode of teaching of village school masters was primitive and in some respects clumsy.

After 1866, efforts were made to develop village pathshalas, to bring them under a prescribed standard and to maintain them. Thus primary education began to spread in Orissa.

Several important steps were taken for the development of primary education. The village pathshalas were subsidised by monthly grants in accordance with the Campbell's Scheme

of Primary Education. In due course it was realised that system aimed at quantity, not quality. With a view to improve elementary schools, it was decided to adopt the so called Midnapur system in place of system of monthly grant. It was also called the system of payment by result. When the aid was given, not in the form of monthly stipends, but as a distinct reward of success, coming once a year, the teachers would have much more desire to take interest in the affairs of the schools and pupils.

The scarcity of well-trained teacher was actively felt in the task of improving and consolidating primary education. In 1869 the Cuttack Training School was thoroughly reorganized in accordance with the scheme of Bhudev Mukherjee. Henceforth, this was called First Grade Training School. Two Third Grade Training Schools were established in Balasore and Puri according to Campbell's Scheme. In order to meet the want of trained teachers, the Government of Bengal sanctioned in 1886 the opening of small Guru classes in connection with middle schools. Consequently, 13 training classes were opened in middle schools in Orissa for training abadhans. In 1891, four full-fledged guru-training schools were established in Orissa.

In November 1895, the third grade training schools at Puri and Balasore were abolished. The Guru training classes attached to middle schools were closed in 1899. Henceforth, the first grade training school at Cuttack served the needs of the upper classes of primary schools and lower classes of secondary schools. The four Guru Training Schools including one attached to the First Grade Training School at Cuttack were mainly the institutions to supply trained teachers to the primary schools of Orissa.

The question of remodelling curriculum of the Primary Schools had long engaged the attention of the Government. The scheme of Vernacular Education of 1901 was brought into gradual operation from the year 1902. The principal feature of this was that the training of boys of tender age

should be conducted under the Kindergarten System. This was generally believed to be the best and trusted method of training and developing the intelligence of children.

In spite of all these steps, the primary education had not made substantial progress by 1905. The mass literacy was hardly better in 1905 than in 1866. As many as 97% of the Oriyas were illiterate.

The progress of secondary education by 1905 was very deplorable. There were only 12 High Schools with 2,598 pupils and 84 Middie Schools with 4,728 pupils.

The Government depended on the grant-in-aid system for the extension of secondary education. But in Orissa the operation of grant-in-aid system failed to elicit adequate private effort in the spread of education. Here it had to contend against proverty and conservatism of the people. In spite of these obstacles, a few secondary schools were opened by this system. The two incentives of English education imparted in secondary schools were the increased prospects of lucrative employment and the chances of obtaining a university career by means of scholarships given at the entrance examination.

The foundation of Ravenshaw College in 1868, saw the beginning of higher western education in the whole of Orissa. From 1876, it became a degree college. The progress of English education rescued Oriyas from a number of disadvantages. They had no place in the lower services of British bureaucratic machinery. People from outside Orissa monopolised all kinds of services. Without English education, the people of Orissa had little contact with outside provinces. In view of many such drawbacks, the introduction of higher western education resulted in a gradual transformation of the mental horizon of people. In course of time, as everywhere in India, there developed a political consciousness based on western ideas. The leading mind of Orissa began to think of social changes in the wake of western education. The influence of English literature on

modern Oriya literature became clearly perceptible towards the later years of 19th century. Three eminent writers, namely, Fakir Mohan Senapati (1843-1918), Radha Nath Ray (1848-1908) and Madhu Sudan Roy (1858-1912), who are considered pioneers of modern consciousness in Orissa, revealed in their literature the profound influence of western ideas on their thought. The rise of modern journalism towards the later part of the 19th century, the publication of a number of periodicals and newspapers, and the new literary trends were the indirect outcome of the spread of English education. In brief, the foundation of modern Orissa is to be traced back to the first half of the Crown's rule.

For the first time in 1876, the British Government took an important step for the promotion of technical education in Orissa when a medical school and survey school were established at Cuttack. Subsequently, some industrial schools were established to impart industrial training to the intending students of Orissa. The Balasore Technical School, managed by the Reverend Griffin, a Baptist Missionary, was the most important of them.

The female education made a beginning in Orissa under the initiative of missionaries. The special girls' schools were established both by the missionaries and the Government to encourage the spread of education among the girls. The expansion of female education was, however, mainly due to the fact that the girls were encouraged to attend the primary schools for boys.

By 1905, the progress of female education was seen to be not satisfactory. The highest standard reached by the girls in Orissa was the middle vernacular scholarship standard. The slow progress of female education was mainly due to the lack of required Government aid, and conservatism of the people.

The Muslims did not constitute any considerable portion of the population in Orissa. But they did not care less for

education than the people of other creeds. In Orissa the percentage of Muslims at school had always been greater than the population percentage. In respect of educational facilities, the Muslims of Orissa were better off than other sections of the population. The education of the backward classes was almost completely neglected by the year 1905.

The Tols were the indigenous institutions of the country for the prosecution of Sanskrit studies. The recognition and encouragement of Sanskrit education became an essential part of the educational system of Orissa after 1882. The Sanskrit Tols numbered 68 in 1893. Of the Tols, the most advanced were Puri Sanskrit Tol established by the Maharaja of Balarampur, the Sriram Chandra Tol in Balasore and the Ganja Tol in Cuttack.

On the whole it can be said that, the state of education in Orissa in 1905 was not satisfactory both from the quantitative and qualitative points of view. This was mainly because of the fact that, Government tried, half-heartedly and hesitatingly to educate the people of Orissa after 1866.

By the year 1905, the National Movement for freedom and Utkal Union Movement from the unification of the Oriya speaking areas were launched in Orissa. The British administrative innovations after 1905 were deeply influenced by these two movements. Undoubtedly the education of Orissa got great impetus from these two movements. Every branch of education received more consideration than before from the British Government. This study mirrors the various reformative measures taken by the British administration with a view to bringing about development of education in Orissa during the period from 1905 to 1936. The significance of the period lies in the fact that more attention was paid to the qualitative improvement of education than to its quantitative expansion.

Very little work has so far been attempted on the history of education in Orissa. A doctoral thesis of Dr. K. M. Patro published by Munshiram Manoharlal, New Delhi in 1971

deals with administration of Orissa under the East India Company. But he has not thrown much light on the education of Orissa under the East India Company. Dr. J. K. Samal's work, *Orissa under the British Crown : 1858-1905*, published by S. Chand & Co. Pvt. Ltd., Ramnagar, New Delhi, in 1977 is a critical, compact and comprehensive study of the administration of Orissa from 1858 to 1905. In this work he has allotted a single chapter to discuss the growth of education in Orissa from 1858 to 1905. But no work has so far been published on the history of education in Orissa from 1905 to 1936. The present work is, therefore, the first attempt in opening the hidden educational policies and measures of the British during a very formative phase of Orissa's Political History.

An educatioual system mainly consisted of (1) primary education, (2) secondary education, (3) collegiate education and (4) technical education. In the evolution of an educational system, students, teachers, teachers' training, curriculum, management etc., are inseparable elements for a complete understanding of the system. Besides, these essential aspects, education covered still greater a field. Inside its comprehensive sphere free and compulsory education, girls' education, backward class education and Muslim education had to be included. Each aspect could form a topic by itself though each one is complementary to the other. In fact, a co-ordination and correlation among different branches was an absolute necessity. The different chapters of the work in their correlation subscribed to a full picture of the system as a whole.

This work has been constructed solely on the basis of original source materials preserved in the Orissa State Archives, Bhubaneswar, Board of Revenue Libray, Cuttack, National Library, Calcutta, which have been utilised for the first time in the light of modern historical methodology. Through the chapters of this work, attempts have been made to bring out the salient features of the process leading towards

the quantitative and qualitative growth of Education during the years 1905 to 1936.

In writing this book I have incurred several debts which it is my pleasant duty to acknowledge. The first and foremost is that of the Indian Council of Historical Research, which by a grant of a fellowship for this purpose, made it possible for me to take one year off from my normal duties to devote myself exclusively to this research. I am grateful to Prof. M. N. Das, the present Vice-Chancellor, Utkal University, who initiated me in the field of historical research. Dr. K. S. Behera, Professsor and Head, History Department, Utkal University, gave inspiration and help at different stages of my studies for which I am indebted to him. Dr. Mahesh Prasad Dash, Superintendent, Orissa State Archives, Bhubaneswar deserves sincere thanks for his timely help. Thanks are also due to a number of friends and faculty members of the Berhampur University for their co-operation and encouragement. Finally, I must thank my wife, Shrimati Suchitra Samal who bore patiently and cheerfully the burden of multifarious domestic chores when I was busy with this research project.

J. K. SAMAL

CONTENTS

Chapter One

PROGRAMMES FOR THE EXPANSION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

Next to the maintenance of the peace and the administration of justice, the biggest and most difficult social problem with which Government had to deal was that of education. Intelligent public opinion has alive to the vital importance of this problem. The debates in the Legislative Council had always been distinguished by the remarkable interest which was evinced by all members in educational matters. Indeed, no real progress in any sphere could be achieved without the help of education.

Political progress, for instance, depended very largely on the conduct of the electorate. But an illiterate and widely scattered electorate, incapable for the most part of reading the newspapers and cut off from any knowledge of what was going on in the Legislative council and in the political world generally, was a serious obstacle to the constitutional advancement. Apart from politics, many of the daily hardships of the lower classes might be directly ascribed to illiteracy. The cultivator had long been at the mercy of almost every literate man with whom be came into contact. He was under the delusion that subordinate officials must be bribed to perform the most elementary duties. The practice of granting incorrect rent receipts, the forgery of hand-notes and deeds of transfer, the insertion of false entries in legal documents, together with all the fraud and chicanery practised in and about the counts of justice were only rendered possible by the ignorance and credulity of the Indian peasant. The insanitary conditions under which he commonly lived was partly due to poverty and partly due to ignorance. The spread of education was necessary to better those conditions and would thus be of incalculable political and economic value[1].

In a meeting of the Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa in 1916, Rai Bahadur Dwarika Nath asked : "I am to impress on you the urgency of the whole subject of primary education and the importance which it has for every district officer for, in whatever direction he may have to forward the moral and material progress of the cultivator, whether he would encourage him to resist the oppression of bad zamindars, of corrupt subordinate employees of Government, whether he would cause him to understand the record of rights, whether he would bring him into co-operative Societies, whether he would induce him to try new seed implements or improved agricultural methods or to protect his cattle against disease, or his family against malaria and plague, at every step he is confronted with the same difficulty, the ignorance and illiteracy of the masses, which make him suspicious of every change and an easy prey to every oppressor and imposter. Till the elements of education are not merely placed within the reach of all but are actually given to the greater portion of the population, advance in many directions which Government are trying to achieve will be slow and uncertain"[2].

In the report prepared by Prof. Rushbrook Williams (India in 1920), it was stated that only 3.36 percent of total population of British India was under instruction in educational institutions. This figure was made up of 5.6 percent of the male and 1.2 percent of the female population. In Orissa, the percentage was even lower. In March 1921, this was only 4.27 percent of the male, and 0.65 percent of the female, or 2.43 percent of the total population of Orissa. As already discussed, the illiteracy of the masses was a factor of immense political and economic importance[3]. Considering the great significance of this branch of education, it was more disappointing to record that in Orissa less than three-fifth of the boys of school-going age were actually attending the school. In these circumstances, the problem of illiteracy was considered in all seriousness by many public-minded people. In 1914 a resolution in the Legislative Council of

Bihar and Orissa recommending that a comprehensive scheme should be drawn up for the systematic expansion and improvement of primary education was adopted.

The necessity of taking steps to reduce illiteracy of the masses in Orissa which there was proportionately greater than in the rest of India was keenly felt. In 1916 local bodies were called on for submitting programmes for the expansion of primary education in each district. The object was to double the number of children attending lower primary schools.

The District Boards drew up definite programmes in the light of the general principles laid down and submitted them for the approval of the Government. These were examined during the cold-weather of 1918-19 at a Conference held at Cuttack, presided over by the Member of Council in charge of education.

In 1920 the programmes submitted by local bodies were finally approved. But it was not until 1923 that sufficient funds were available for substantial grants to be made to enable them to be carried out[4].

The largely increased funds available for Primary Education since 1923 rendered necessary a revision of the district programmes for the development and expansion of primary education, which had been to a large extent moribund on account of financial stringency. In 1924 all district boards were asked to submit new programmes to provide for educating 80 percent of the boys of school-going age in every district[5].

These programmes were designed to furnish estimates of the cost of providing elementary education for 80 percent of the boys of such ages as would normally attend the infant and lower primary classes as well as providing facilities to enable a certain percentage of them to proceed to the Upper Primary and Middle Vernacular stage. The estimates were to be prepared on the following lines :

(1) Lower Primary Schools were schools to be provided for 80 percent of the male population of each district with the

help of thana maps and local enquiries. They were to be carefully located to suit the needs of every part of the district. That the boys would not have to walk more than a mile to lower primary schools was to be kept in view.

(2) Upper Primary and Middle Vernacular Schools were to be similarly located roughly one each within 25 and 125 square miles respectively. Where the density of the population was greater or less than this, number of schools was to be raised or lowered, as the case might be, in strict proportion.

(3) There were to be two trained teachers in every Upper Primary School and one trained teacher in every Lower Primary School. Every Upper Primary School was to have three and every Lower Primary School two teachers. The appointment of one trained teacher and the addition of a second teacher for each Lower Primary School were to be considered the most urgent measures.

(4) Maximum and minimum rates of pay were to be fixed for all classes of teachers, trained and untrained. In addition, a sum of Rs. 3 a month for an Upper Primary and Rs. 2 a month for Lower Primary School was to be provided for contingent expenses.

(5) The rate at which these changes would be safely carried into effect, on the supposition that sufficient funds became available, was to be carefully worked out.

The revised programmes for the expansion and improvement of Primary Education were received during the year 1925[6].

In brief, the new programmes for Primary Education mainly provided for two things. Firstly, Lower Primary Schools throughout Orissa were to be located in such a way that the schools of this class would eventually be available everywhere within a reasonable distance of the pupils' home. Secondly, every Upper Primary School should have three teachers of whom two should be trained, and every Lower Primary School two teachers, of whom one should be trained. The Government, however, considered the appointment of

one trained teacher and the addition of a second teacher for each Lower Primary School to be urgently necessary. Besides, the Government urged upon district boards that "they should exercise care in the location of new schools, so that all will fit into the final scheme when the programmes were ripe for any comprehensive scheme of compulsion or for a further expansion"[7].

By 1928, all the revised district programmes of Orissa for the expansion and improvement of primary education had received the approval of Government The existence of these programmes was reported to be affecting a gradual improvement in the distribution of Primary Schools. There was, however, a tendency on the part of local bodies to neglect the mere elementary form of Primary Education for that given in the higher stages. As a result, the number of Upper Primary Schools laid down in the programmes had already been attained, if not exceeded, though the districts in question were still far short of the required number of Lower Primary Schools. There was persistent demand with which Government did not sympathise for more Upper Primary Schools than were permitted by the programmes on the ground that the education given by a Lower Primary School did not go far enough to ensure lasting literacy among its pupils. Moreover, a large number of the pupils of these lower primary classes never got beyond the lowest class and were withdrawn before they had learnt even to read or write. This resulted in a wastage of both money and effort and led to stagnation in the progress of instruction.

In the year 1929 the restrictions placed by the programmes on the number of Upper Primary Schools were relaxed on condition that the cost of the additional schools did not fall on public funds. In the following years, it was explained that if a Upper Primary School was started at a place where the sanctioned programme provided a school of lower status, it was the additional cost only, not the full cost, that would have to be met locally. Government also informed the Boards

that having regard to the difference of condition in different parts of the province, they were prepared to sanction, on good reasons being shown, deviations from the programmes which did not involve extra cost. In 1930, it was decided that if the net sum provided in the programmes for Upper Primary Schools would suffice (owing, for instance, to a rise in the fee income) for such schools that the programmes allowed, additional schools might be started with the savings[8].

District Boards of Orissa had not been slow to take advantage of the concessions. In due course the number of Upper Primary Schools exceeded the figure in the programme. Majority of the members of the District Boards of Orissa were firm in their belief that money spent on Upper Primary Schools was more likely to be well spent than money spent on schools which might never make their pupils really literate[9].

It was realised that the existing elementary training schools were wholly inadequate for meeting the progressive demands that would be made upon them as the primary education programmes developed. They were also incapable of producing a supply of trained teachers for existing schools. This was due in part to the fact that they were unsuitably located but much more to the lack of qualified teaching staff and the inadequacy of the present course. Without a regular supply of a sufficient number of trained teachers, the development of the primary schools programmes in the districts would only result in a large expenditure of funds without any commensurate benefit to the people. This question had been receiving the serious consideration of Government and a scheme had been drawn up. On its introduction, it was hoped to result in an adequate output of properly qualified teachers, who had received a two years' course of training[10].

After 1930, paucity of funds rendered it impossible to place required grants at the disposal of the local bodies for expansion in accordance with the Primary Education Programmes. Besides, attention was being diverted gradually

from the programmes, which in any case were losing value owing to the want of funds to carry them out, to the Report of the Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission. This plainly indicated the need for a thorough overhaul of the primary education system[11].

The progress made with the programmes for the expansion of primary education was reviewed during the year 1934-35. This investigation showed that as far as expansion was concerned the aims of programmes had been more than fulfilled in the matter of Upper Primary Schools. Although an increase had taken place in the number of Lower Primary Schools, the growth of Lower Primary Schools in the directions indicated by Government had received very scant attention[12].

The term of 10 years for which the programmes were designed had expired. The following table compares the equipment considered necessary for each district according to the programmes with the actual condition at the end of programme term :

District	*U.P*		*L.P*		*Estimated cost of programme*	*Expenditure in 1937*
	Programme	*1937*	*Programme*	*1937*	*Rs.*	*Rs.*
Cuttack	138	143	2,607	2,612	5,01,816	4,15,459
Angul including Khandamals	21	21	201	195	60,050	45,722
Puri	79	79	1,053	829	2,32,949	1,78,663
Balasore	118	120	784	764	3,20,184	1,05,372
Sambalpur	56	58	317	334	2,78,096	1,23,966

WASTAGE AND STAGNATION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

It was realised that wastage and stagnation in primary education was the main impediment to the spread of the mass literacy. There was volume of evidence to show that a

large number of pupils of the lower primary schools never got beyond the infant classes and were withdrawn before they had learnt even to read and write. That means, they could never become literate. This was indicative of huge wastage of both money and effort leading to stagnation in the progress of primary education. The evil of stagnation remained a very serious obstacle to the literacy of the masses[13].

Extent of Wastage and Stagnation

The success of the primary education system was to be judged by the quality of education and the number of literate people turned out rather than by the total number of children at school. The census figures of 1921 and 1931 showed that the growth in literacy had barely kept pace with the growth of population. In fact, in respect of the male sex, it had failed to do so with the result that the proportion of literate males was in 1931 actually sligtly lower than it was ten years ago. In 1921, in every thousand persons aged five or over, there were 96 males and 6 females who could read and write a simple letter in their own vernacular. In 1931, the corresponding figures were 95 and 8 respectively. These facts made it abundantly clear that a good deal of effort was wasted.

The grave wastage in educational effort was mainly to be judged by the proportion of the total school population to be found in (1) infant class, (2) Class III, the highest of the Lower Primary Classes and (3) Class IV, the lowest of the Upper Primary Classes. The percentages of the children in these three classes on the total number of children at primary school were as follows[14].

	1922	*1927*
Infant Class	71.0	58.0
Class III	8.3	12.0
Class IV	2.6	4.4

The Auxiliary Committee on education of the Indian Statutory Commission had drawn attention to the stagnation in the primary schools, i.e., the high proportion of boys in the

lowest class to the total number of boys in the schools and the low percentage of literate pupils turned out. They were of opinion that although larger sums were spent on education in recent years, a good deal of waste and ineffectiveness had occurred particularly in the primary system. As a result, the increase in literacy was not as rapid as was necessary for a community with growing political consciousness and anxious to manage its own affairs. They laid stress on the necessity of reducing wastage in primary schools if the low standard of literacy was to be effectually attacked.

The table below further illustrates the serious wastage in the Primary Education.

	Percentage in	
	1927-28	*1930-31*
Class I	58.3	53.9
Class II	18.6	20.4
Class III	13.4	18.8
Class IV	5.7	6.1
Class V	4.00	4.80
Total	100.00	100.00

The above table leaves no doubt that the number of boys in Class IV in 1930-31 was less than one-tenth of the number of boys in Class I in 1927-28. If there had been no wastage, the numbers should have been approximately equal. Since the Auxiliary Committee held that those who left before reaching class IV were not likely to remain permanently literate, the enormous wastage of educational effort became apparent[15].

Causes of the wastage and stagnation

There existed a large number of Primary Schools with a single teacher frequently untrained. It was impossible to expect a high standard of results when 76 percent of the schools were with a single teacher. This type of schools proved most unsatisfactory. The teaching was ineffective and attendance irregular. A single teacher naturally could not

give necessary attention to each class under his control. Not unnaturally, he devoted himself mainly to the two higher classes, the progress in which was likely to impress Inspecting Officers[16].

The method of teaching in the Primary Schools was highly unimpressive. It involved the memorising of words rather than the formation of ideas and was such "as to create intellectual bad habits at the outset". Hence, the parents were either completely indifferent to the education of their children or dis-interested in sending their children to schools after one or two years of the commencement of the school education. This was usually considered to be at the bottom of the evil of stagnation. It was felt that until children were instructed on more intelligent lines, the attitude of the parents would not change[17].

Another trouble was the first admission of the children into the lowest class at any time during the year instead of at the beginning of the session. The result was that the lowest class consisted of children at different stages of mental development. The teacher found it impossible to deal with it as a teaching unity. His energies were thus "frittered away in trying to give those in the lowest section of the class individual attention instead of taking them as a class".

Another factor contributing to the stagnation in primary education was the combination of two infant classes to form the present class I. This had made the task of getting the average child through the course of that class in one year almost impossible. This necessiated the revision of the curriculum for the primary classes[18].

One subsidiary cause of the stagnation was the retention of the paying pupils in the school longer than was necessary in order that their fees should not be lost to the Guru or teacher. Another subsidiary cause was the advanced age at which the boys began their schooling. Obviously, they easily became disheartened, and left the school in order to increase the family income[19].

The last but not the least was lamentable lack of demand for real education among a substantial portion of the agricultural population. When the children belonging to this class became economically useful to the family, they were taken away from the school or attended irregularly. The irregular attendance of the pupils was occasioned not only by the casual utilisation of the services of the boys by their parents in agriculture but also by the unattractiveness of the school[20].

Measures to overcome wastage and stagnation

The factors mentioned above were mainly responsible for the dreadful wastage leading to stagnation in primary education. As a result, the spread of literacy among the masses was being checked to a great extent. This necessiated the adoption of measures with a view to counter wastage in primary education.

In order to increase the number of trained teachers and their efficiency, a scheme for reorganising Elementary Training Schools was taken up[21]. The efforts were also made to do something to contract the mistaken tendency to put the weakest teacher in charge of the lowest class, for, in other countries it was usual to put a teacher with special qualification in charge of the infants[22]. Most of the Lower Primary Schools were one teacher schools. Persistent efforts were made to provide each of them with two teachers.

Experience showed that it was impossible to form a homogenous class because of the practice of allowing admissions to the schools at any time during the year. An attempt was made to render the work of the teachers easier by restricting the period for admission to the first two months of the academic session. It was satisfactory that the local bodies agreed to limit admissions to two months in the year[23].

In February, 1935, an important instruction enjoined the admission of new entrants to Primary Schools as far as possible between the age of 5 and 6. "In order to mitigate

the appalling drag on less backward pupils", local bodies were desired to fix a date in each year after which children should not be admitted unless they had already reached a standard of instruction comparable with that of the students eligible to the class[24].

A determined effort was made to overcome the evil of stagnation in primary schools when the new syllabus came into effect in January 1935. Its most conspicuous feature was the addition of a new infant class to the bottom of the school. The new syllabus was to effect improvement in primary education in two ways. Firstly, the addition of the new infant class was intended "to separate the dead weight of the very small, who in previous years had obstructed the progress of the more mature in the schools already unmethodically staffed". Secondly, this was calculated to ensure that before a boy had left his lower primary course, he should be at least literate.

In accordance with the recommendations of the Primary Education Commmittee of 1931, steps were taken to make the schools more attractive. Indigenous games were being revived and suitable furniture was being provided. Greater attention was paid to compulsory games, school gardens and manual work. The use of manuscript word cards, locally prepared reading sheets, beautifully illustrated simple stories, and counting sheets and materials had done much to break the monotony and dullness of school work for the beginners. This was, no doubt, a satisfactory step in the advance to undermine general illiteracy[25].

Another factor, giving ground for hope of an improvement was the revival of the post of Special Officer in 1933 to deal with primary education. With the revival of the post of a Special Officer for Primary and girls' education, there was an organised attempt to avoid wastage and to advance the cause of primary education[26].

The question of housing Lower Primary Schools became very acute when the Government followed the policy of

providing each one-teacher Lower Primary School with a second teacher. It was comparatively easy to find a baithak or house, often inadequate for a one-teacher school. It was increasingly difficult to find buildings capable of housing two-teacher schools. Even in places where the amalgamation of two different one-teacher schools would have been welcomed, they continued in their separate way because of the lack of suitable accommodation. The official efforts to provide or improve school buildings are too inadequate to serve any useful purpose. The poor accommodation of the village primary schools remained a real barrier to the increase of literate persons turned out by the schools[27].

Some steps taken to improve the quality of supervision in the primary schools. Firstly, instructions were issued that Sub-Inspectors of Schools should concentrate their visits mostly on the two-teacher and the better one-teacher schools. The number of schools so selected was to be not less than half of the total number of schools in the circle. The other schools would receive routine inspections only. Secondly, it had been suggested to local bodies that each school should be required to exhibit card signed by the Sub-Inspector showing the hours of session and the weekly holidays and half holidays. The hours and the holidays would be chosen in consultation with the village community. The object of this provision was to prevent teachers from excusing their absence at the time of expected visit on the ground that the school had already been held on that day or the day of the visit was allowed as a holiday. Thirdly, each Sub-Inspector had been provided with a register in which he had to record full particulars of all the schools in each circle. This would serve both as a permanent record and as a help to his successors in office.

The new syllabus was introduced in Class I, II and IV in January 1935 and in Class III and V in January 1936, provided for the extension of the lower primary and upper primary courses from three and five to four and six years

respectively. In order to carry out this change successfully, new books were required. With a view to obtain these books, outlines were published of what was required in the matter of (a) a hand book of method and organisation, (b) a hand book of stories and story telling, (c) a hand book for the study of the environment of an Indian village and of a hand book of the geography of Bihar and Orissa for upper primary teachers. The production of text books had been left to the private enterprise. To help in launching the new syllabus in the absence of these necessary books, the Special Officer held conferences of the Inspecting Officers of Orissa[28].

During the year 1934, Government found it possible to restore the balance of the 10% cut made in the year 1932-33 in the grants to local bodies for primary education. The opportunity was taken to reiterate the policy that teachers must be paid at rates not less than the minimum prescribed. It was found that even with the help of the restored grants, many of the local bodies could not be able to pay the prescribed rates to all their trained teachers without withdrawing help from some other schools[29].

Recognisation of the system of Recognition

In 1935, the special officer made an investigation into the state of primary education in Orissa. It revealed that of three children admitted to primary school, only one had made satisfactory progress after three years. Of the others, one had remained tenaciously at the bottom of the school throughout the period, while the third had vanished, without completing his education. He recorded that enormous wastage in primary education caused in previous years by several factors, showed signs of having been arrested. Of course, in his opinion it was too early to anticipate that wastage was definitely a thing of the past. He was of the opinion that some energetic measures were to be adopted for further reduction of wastage.

The need for checking the spread of small inefficient schools was actively felt in this regard. The mushroom growth

of private primary schools started by half educated gurus in unsuitable houses and surroundings was considered detrimental to the cause of children education. To remedy this state of affairs, the system of recognition was reorganized and three classes of schools were introduced in 1936.

'A' class schools were those which fully satisfied the minimum requirements for recognition. Those which complied with the minimum requirements but had slight deficiencies in the matter of space and equipment were classed as 'B'. Those which fall short of requirements in many respects were grouped as 'C'[30].

It came to the notice that the withdrawal of recognition, weapon in the hands of the authorities for preventing the growth of inefficient schools, could not be used due to pressure of public opinion. However, it was admitted that, the introduction of the aforesaid system of recognition had put stress on the quality or efficiency of an institution. It also helped, to a great extent, to weed out the inefficient schools[31].

Wastage and stagnation in primary education was one of the serious problems confronting the primary education in Orissa during the period from 1905 to 1936. It had, in a considerable measure, retarded the spread of literacy among the masses. In spite of the several active measures adopted to counter it, wastage in boys' primary schools continued to a great extent although it showed the signs of being diminished. The table given below illustrates this[32].

Number of boys in				*Proportion of boys in*	
1937-38	*1938-39*	*1939-40*	*1940-41*	*1937-38*	*1940-41*
Infant Class	Class I	Class II	Class III	Infant Class	Class III
52,865	37,154	31,053	23,505	100	44

FREE AND COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION

Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Act of 1919

The education of the masses was one of the most vital and difficult problems with which the Government of Bihar and Orissa had to confront. No real progress in any sphere could be achieved so long as the education of the masses lagged behind. In British India, 5.6 percent of the male and 1.2 percent of the female population was under instruction in educational institutions in 1921. But in the province of Bihar and Orissa the percentage was even lower. In March, 1921, only 4.21 percent of the male and 0.65 percent of the female or 2.43 percent of the total pouplation of the province were under instruction in both public and private educational institutions[33].

After the introduction of reformed institutions education of the masses had assumed great importance owing to the need of creating an intelligent electorate. But an illiterate and widely scattered electorate, incapable for most part of reading the newspapers and off from any knowledge of what was going in the Legislative Council and in the political circle generally, was a serious obstacle to constitutional advance [3].

As early as 1905, the Government of India recognised the necessity of introducing free and compulsory education to counter mass illiteracy[35].

In 1918 the Bill was introduced in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council for the free and compulsory education. Participating in the debate in the motion, Gopabandhu Das, the eminent legislator of Orissa spoke : "...The necessity and importance of making primary education free and compulsory can not be too highly emphasized at this stage. The principle has not only been recognised with success in almost all the civilized countries of the world. The Government of India have accepted it in as much as they have accorded their sanction to the introduction of the Bill, not only in the Council but also in some other provincial councils. It has

been recognised and put into action by some of the advanced nation states of India. The time required and the country demands it. I am sure that the Government will not fall behind. I do not doubt that this Government will hesitate in recognizing the principle of compulsion as desirable and necessary for the wider diffusion of education among the masses. If the principle is recognised, there can be no possible objection to the motion".[36]

The Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Bill was passed into law. It did not satisfy the nationalist aspiration fully. It was subjected to severe criticism for the following reasons. Firstly, it was absolutely necessary that primary education should be compulsory so that every boy and girl might receive the benefits of primary education. But this measure was confined to boys, girls being definitely excluded from it. Secondly, the provision had also been made for the exclusion of the children of backward communities from joining public institutions. Above all, the measure had restricted to municipalities and to unions under the local self-government, where organised bodies already existed, by whom the expediency of such a measure, its cost, and its working could be considered and supervised.[37]

Recommendation of the Primary Education Committee of 1923

The Primary Education Committee of 1923 held the view that free and compulsory education was the only way of contracting the illiteracy of the masses The committee by a majority of eight, out of the membership of thirty-five, recommended that early steps should be taken to introduce free and compulsory education for boys in all municipalities and rural areas throughout the province of Bihar and Orissa.

Those members who had only signed the main report subject to a note of dissent on this point were opposed to the introduction of free and compulsory education on the following

grounds. Firstly, the estimated cost of the reform was Rs. 100 lakhs, or more than a fifth of the provincial income. The Government was unable to spend such a vast sum only for this purpose. Secondly, one of the main reasons for the small attendance at primary schools was that the parents could not spare his son from fields to schools. So it was certain that any measure of compulsion would be distasteful to a very large section of the people. Thirdly, if the scheme was to be introduced, extra taxation would be necessary. That would be a source of annoyance to the poor peasants. The Ranchi Municipality (in Bihar) had made primary education compulsory in 1921. Here it was found that extra taxation had been extremely unpopular. In view of these factors, the members who dissented from the resolution were of opinion : "The question, therefore, is both financial and economic and at this stage any measure of general compulsion is outside the range of practical politics.[38]

Compulsory Education in Banki Union in Orissa

The Banki Union in the district of Cuttack agreed to the extension of Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Act of 1919. It had finally been brought into operation there with effect from 1 January 1925[39]. Compulsion has been introduced in 24 villages within an area of an 10 square miles under the management of the Banki Union Board.

Incidentally, the Cuttack district continued to maintain its reputaiton of being the most progressive region in Primary Education in the entire Orissa. The number of pupils in its primary schools was 83,205, a number that was far higher than that of any other district in proportion to the population in Orissa[40].

The Banki Union got a non-recurring grant of Rs. 3,800 and a recurring grant of Rs. 4,470 a year for three years, to enable it to put scheme into operation. This experiment was intended to furnish the data, now lacking, which would enable an estimate to be made of the cost of introducing

compulsory education in the municipalities and unions throughout Orissa.[41]

The male population in the Banki Union, according to provincial census, was 4,723 and according to local census 4,407. The number on the rolls of the schools was 297 before the compulsion was introduced. By February 1926, it had risen to 629. There was an attendance officer. According to him, the average attendance was only about two-thirds of the number of boys on the roll. The number of cases referred to courts against the guardians for not sending their boys to schools was 23 in 1920 and 36 in 1927.

The period of three years for which Government agreed to pay the cost of the experiment was to end in 1928[42]. In 1928 the Inspector of School, reported that it was a success as regards both the enrolment of pupils of school going age and their attendance[43].

At Banki, compulsion was started with the help of Government grant, but it was terminated at the end of the year, 1930-31. Since then, the cost was borne by the Cuttack district board from its ordinary grant for primary education.[44]

The Director of Public Instruction inspected the area in 1930. He felt satisfied with the progress of the experiment in the Banki Union[45].

The Special Officer visited the area in December 1935. He reported that the compulsory education in Banki Union had produced successful results[46]. The number of schools was 9 with an enrolment of 591 pupils in 1936 as against the same number of schools with an enrolment of 733 pupils in 1931.

There was considerable stagnation and wastage in the lower classes which was due mainly to the irregular attendance of pupils. Only 7% of the pupils in the Infant Class reached Class III after 3 years[47].

The work done in the Banki Union had been of great value. It had shown that compulsion was practicable in rural areas at any rate if there was a local court before which

offenders could be brought. The figures obtained had been useful and seemed to indicate the desirability of amending the Act so as to make attendance compulsory for four school sessions rather than for a period of four years beginning with the date on which a boy reached the age of six[48].

The question of the extension of the compulsory Primary Education

The Government had omitted from the Budget altogether the assistance they used to give to the Board for the scheme of compulsory education within Banki Union. This indicated that the Government was in favour of the extension of compulsory education in Orissa[49].

Although the experiment in Banki Union was a total success, the Government was vehemently criticised for terminating the grant in course of the discussion in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council Session of 19 March, 1931. Bahadur Lakshmidhar Mohanty, the Legislator from Orissa said : "...Although the compulsion in Banki Union had been practicable and the expenditure per boy was only Rs. 9-8-0 per annum, the Government was showing total indifference towards it". In reply, G. E. Faucus, the D.P.I. said : "The question is : can the Govt. find money to carry on compulsory education in this particular place ? It may be desirable to carry it there. It may be equally desirable to carry it on somewhere else in the province. The first question that arises is why should we give preferential treatment to this particular place ? Perhaps the Hon'ble member of this resolution has not considered the matter in that light". Rai Bahadur Lakshimidhar Mohanty gave fitting reply : "This is not a question of preferential treatment. It is not a question of general policy of Government whether they are going to stop this free and compulsory education or they are going to extend it. The policy as it appears to me is to put a stop to free and compulsory primary education".

In opposition to demand for further expansion of free and

compulsory education, G. E. Faucus said : "You will probably agree that the experience in Banki does not prove every thing. Banki is a place where the conditions are particularly favourable to this experiment. Although it is a rural area, there is a Magistrate there and the cases under the primary education can be tried promptly without any inconvenience to the parents. It would be more difficult to administer the Act in a rural area where there is no Magistrate and where you would have to drag the parents 30 or 40 miles to receive a fine of Re 1 for not sending their boys to school. I doubt the success of experiments in other places".

In view of practicability of the compulsion in Banki Union, the eminent legislator from Orissa, Sri Godavarish Mishra urged upon the Government to take early steps to extend compulsory primary education to other parts of Orissa. He said : "It may be said that the state wiil not be able to make primary education free. But the scheme can certainly be prepared to make it compulsory and to raise a part of the cost from those people that are willing to pay for it. I can carry no doubt to special taxation, but so far as I know, people will be willing, though not fully able to pay for the education of their children over and above what they are paying to the Government in other ways. It is at this stage, therefore, necessary for Government to come forward with a prepared scheme for the spread of compulsory primary education. It was not a very rightful contention on the part of the D.P.I. to say that the period of experiment having been over, it was not necessary to make any further grant. That may be right from merely the experimental point of view, but after the experiment was over, steps should have been taken for carrying on a proper project for the dissemination of compulsory primary education".

In reply to this, G. E. Faucus said : "The speaker Sir, said that the people would be very glad to pay for the cost of compulsory education. Did he really realise that ? Because if so, it is open to District Board tomorrow to impose an

education cess in Banki and to cover cost of the scheme. The law permits it. The amount required is not very large. One somewhat feels that at the present time extra taxation and an education cess will not be very readily borne, but the speaker said that it would, and if he is right if he is correctly representing the view of Cuttack, let the district board get on with it". At the same time, he made it clear that in view of the inadequacy of the financial resources, the Government was not in a position to consider the question of further extension of the term of compulsory education in Banki Union.

The District Board of Cuttack wrote to D.P.I. that they were really unable to meet the cost from their own funds. The D.P.I. replied : "After all, Sir, as have been explained before, an amount of Rs. 5,000 have been given to Cuttack over and above a grant on the scale which every other district received, and it certainly does require full justification before Government would go on giving preferential treatment indefinitely".[50]

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Chapter Two

PRIMARY EDUCATION

PRIMARY CURRICULUM

Syllabus of 1901

Being inspired by the current edition of the regulation of the education department of England, it was laid down that, the purpose of the Public Elementary Schools of India was "to form and strengthen the character and develop the intelligence of the children entrusted to it, and to make the best use of the school years available in assisting both girls and boys, according to their different needs, to fit themselves practically as well as intellectually for the work of life". It was further stated that the other aims of the primary school were "to train the children carefully in the habits of observation and clear reasoning so that they may join in intelligent acquaintance with some of the facts and laws of nature, to arouse in them a living interest in the ideals and achievements of mankind, to give them some power over language as an instrument of thought and expression, to develop in them a taste for good reading, to encourage their natural activities of hand and eye by suitable forms of practical work and manual instruction, to train them in appropriate physical exercises, to encourage them in organised games, to instruct them in similar laws of health, to discover and advance individual children of exceptional capacity, to lay the foundations of good conduct and to enable the children not merely to reach their full development as individuals, but also to become upright and careful members of the community in which they live"[1].

The famous resolution of January 1901 aimed at achieving the above mentioned objectives. It was to revolutionise School teaching in Bengal Presidency by the introduction of

a system under which 'children are trained and not taught, this is to say, trained to do and learn things of themselves', encouraged to feel that 'each one possesses a certain amount of innate intelligence and initiative, the gradual development of which depends on the child himself and his personal activity' and 'led to see that eyes, ears and hands all help in the acquiring of knowledge'. Under this system, school work was to become for children 'a developed part of their everyday life', while habits of accuracy and obedience were to be 'included by the process of stick-laying and simple physical exercise and action song'.

The difficulties of realising these high ideals were recognised. But the authors of the Resolution of 1901 were hopeful that a solid gain might be secured, for in their opinion 'bad teaching with a good education system will produce better results than bad teaching with a bad and unsound system'. In the resolution, it was told that nothing would be more worse than the system which then prevailed, for it was 'an entirely mechanical system of training the memory whereby all the other faculties are dulled at the expense of monotonons parrot-like exercises'.

The following changes were introduced in the lower primary and Upper Primary courses as a result of the introduction of the well known Resolution of 1901. The infant class was to be divided into three sections. Its course was to extend over a year. The children in the infant class under the new system were to be taught : (a) 'Kindergarten' and object lessons for training by observation or impressions obtained through the senses ; (b) simple lessons about the human body and about animals ; (c) lessons on number, the writing of numerals, notation and simple calculation ; (d) Kindergarten occupations, such as, stick-laying, seed-placing etc. ; (e) drawing and tracing ; (f) the learning of the alphabet and the reading of simple printed and written language ; (g) the writing of letters and simple word ; (h) the learning by heart and recitation of poetry. In the lower primary course, the

class reading book was abolished and a science primer was introduced, which was to consist of certain number of pages on ; (1) Botany, (2) Natural History, (3) Agriculture, (4) Physics, (5) Chemistry, (6) Hygiene, and (7) Domestic Economy. The agricultural sections were to be read by boys in country schools instead of the sections of Physics and Chemistry. The Hygiene portion was to be read by the boys only and the Domestic Economy portion by the girls only. Object lessons on the sky and air were added. Drawing was included, as also manual training by which term the manipultion of leaves and the cutting of papers were dignified, but this pastime was left optional. The upper primary course was enlarged by the addition of a historical reader and a literature book, practical geometry and mensuration being also added and the scope of the object lessons on the natural objects being enlarged. The science primer for upper primary course was to comprise all the subjects specified above as being included in the lower primary science reader, their scope being proportionately widened.

The motives by which the framers of this new system were actuated were to a certain extent unassailable. They saw a system of elementary instruction which consisted wholly of making children commit to memory certain statements either taken from book or verbally imparted and of mechanically instructing them in certain processes, such as writing, counting and calculating So they felt that if elementary education in India was to do anything to revivify the masses, modern development of infant teaching could not be wholly ignored. In their opinion, anything was better 'than allowing things to to go in the same old groove'.

The task of reform, which they set themselves, was surrounded by colossal difficulties as indeed it was new. In the primary schools, in which the new system was to work, the qualifications of the most teachers were very poor. While writing on this subject in 1902, the Director of Public Instruction remarked : "It was almost impossible to convey to the

ordinary educated Englishman or European even an idea of them. To say that the majority of these men were able to read and write and to do a little arithmetic is to rehearse the sum total of their accomplishments. How could these men be got to assimilate the principle of the Kindergarten system and to learn to teach their pupils about things instead of confining them to a repetition of words".

One of the aims of the syllabus of 1901 was that every Indian child should under it have a chance of acquiring a proper knowledge of his own vernacular. This excellent object had been frustrated by the introduction of science primer, which was, in standard I and II, the only book that was read. To introduce a child to a knowledge of its own language through the medium of a science primer would probably be an unwise experiment, even if the primer which from the point of language and style could be considered a good book for beginners. But the science primer which had been produced in Oriya language had not been good either from the point of view of science or language. Indeed, considering the development of Oriya language in the first decade of the 20th century, it was impossible to produce a vernacular elementary science primer which could be considered a good book from the point of language and style. The matter to be conveyed was largely foreign to the spirit of language, and the scientific terms used had been 'either transliteration or farfetched reproduction'. The working of this arrangement was described by Kuchler as follows :

"This subject (science) not only occupies a quite disproportionate place in the syllabus but children are actually expected to make their first acquaintance with their own vernacular through the medium of the scienc readers, this being the book prescribed for lessons in reading upto end of standard II. There is a certain amount of ingenuity shown in their attempt to kill two birds with one stone, but the result is that mark is missed in both cases... Under no circumstances is it desirable to teach a child its own tongue

through the medium of compilation of an elementary science, but the ojections to this method are doubly strong in the present instance as the diction of these publications is open to serious objections" .

Revised Syllabus of 1907

In consequence of the factors mentioned above, the ideas set forth in the Resolution of 1901 had not been realised. The training of hand and eye had not replaced mere memory work. The substitution of science primer for the class reading book had not succeeded in compelling children to think for themselves and to draw general conclusions from observed facts. Besides, it had been difficult on the part of the children to learn Oriya language well through science primer. To remedy these defects, the whole system of primary education had been revised in 1907[3].

With the Government Resolution No. 1028 dated 10 June 1907, it was decided to revise the syllabus for the lower primary and upper primary schools. The chief differences between the new syllabus and the vernacular scheme of education of 1901 were as follows : Firstly, books containing easy extracts from general literature were substituted for the science primer of the vernacular system[4]. Secondly, with a view to provide a curriculum of studies suited to the needs and capacities of the children of agriculturists, the syllabus included nature study[5]. Thirdly, English might be taught colloquially by the direct method for an hour every day in the first four classes of a Middle School, which corresponded to primary standard. Fourthly, separate books were prescribed for higher standards in Nature Study, Hygiene and Geography. Fifthly, time required to pass through the infant stage was reduced from three to two years[6]. Sixthly, the Science Reader should be prepared at the expense of Government but the production of other books should be left to private enterprise[7].

However, the revised syllabus for primary schools was

taught in the schools of Orissa from the beginning of 1910. For the guidance of the teachers who were often untrained, a junior teachers' manual was prepared at state expense by a body of expert educationists. The publication of necessary vernacular readers and arithmetic books which were to be ready by 15 June 1908 proceeded with reasonable expedition. By the end of 1908, the majority of the books were ready for the final consideration of the Special Committee[8].

By 1914 it became abundantly clear that the courses prescribed for the primary classes should be revised in the light of practical experience. It was urged that matters which were beyond the grasp of teacher and young minds should be removed from the syllabus. Bulkier books had been published and introduced. Young minds were asked under fear of severe corporal punishment to learn their contents by heart without understanding them. Some portions of these books were not even intelligible to some of the teachers themselves, what to speak of the students. Many felt that the courses should be prescribed, keeping in view the limitations of the students and average attainment of the teachers. If the mental capacity of the students were found to be deficient to follow with profit the instructions prescribed, it was necessary that unsuitable text books and complicated matters of the syllabus should be replaced by simpler ones[9].

Gopabandhu Das remarked : "The question of education, Sir, is a very difficult question in this country. It is really a transplantation of the civilization of the West in the East. But the substitution is not possible. It is only grafting that is possible, and in any system of grafting, you have to take into consideration the nature of plants on which you graft the fibre of which it is constituted and the circumstances under which it can grow. Any disregard to these circumstances will make the grafting a failure"[10]. He meant to say that the primary education was growing unpopular because of the complicated curriculum.

Syllabus of 1925

The question of popularising primary schools by the introduction of a simpler curriculum engaged the attention of the Government. The Education Committee of 1923 went into the whole matter.

Another factor which necessitated the revision of syllabus was the problem arising out of the one teacher in most Lower Primary Schools. At present it was usual for a Lower Primary School to have one teacher. It was practically a physical impossibility on his part to teach four classes at the same time. The result had usually been that the infant class suffered. The correct solution of the problem was no doubt to appoint a second teacher for each Lower Primary School. But financial reasons rendered this impracticable[11].

The Primary Education Committee of 1923 was directed to enquire into the problem of teaching in the one-teacher primary schools and to suggest its remedies.

Taking the above facts into consideration, the Primary Education Committee made following recommendations, in regard to curriculum for primary schools. The course was to be shortened from six years to five years in consequence of the combination of two infant classes. Secondly, the following subjects were made optional : nature-study and observation, action songs, drawings and modelling in Class I, nature-study and observation work in class-garden, school excursion, drawing, history and geography in Class II; nature-study and observation, drawing and school excursion, stories and collection in Class III ; and nature-study, drawing and English in Class IV and V.

The new curriculum came into effect in 1925. The general opinion was that the nominal combination of the two infant classes to be called Class I had done little good. One trouble was that the parents were in the habit of sending their children to school not at the beginning of the school year but on any date convenient to themselves. The result was that class I always contained boys at several

different stages of progress. It certainly required one teacher to itself even if it was conceded that one teacher could manage class II and class III[12]. So, G. E. Faucus, the Director of Public Instruction, cautioned : "It would be unfortunate if local bodies consider the change in any way lessening the need for a second teacher in each Lower Primary School"[13].

Vocational subjects in Primary Curriculum

With the growth of national movement, the vocational education became a matter of considerable public interest. Gandhi suggested that for an all-round development of boys and girls, the training should be given through a profit-yielding vocation. Vocation should serve a double purpose to enable the pupil to pay for his tuition through the products of his labour, and at the same time 'to develop the whole man or woman in him or her, through the vocation learnt at school'.

Early in the last century, at a meeting of the Bengal Legislative Council, Gopabandhu Das suggested the desirability of combining manual training with education in Primary Schools 'with a view to train the hand and the eye, and to remove false ideas about the dignity of labour'. His suggestion met violent opposition from the Chief Secretary, Government of Bihar and Orissa. Afterwards, Gopabandhu Das remarked : "I was ridiculed and I consider myself lucky that I was not sent to a lunatic asylum".

Gopabandhu Das raised this issue again at a session of the Legislative Council in 1914. He said : "The Government policy of training the brain only to neglect of the body as if our students were disbodied spirits, has produced result worthy of the theory. I am glad their labours had only partially been rewarded. A better harvest would have been disastrous. They have produced volatile spirits, allude detection, arrest and identification, which threaten to turn a district a hunted house where terror and horror rule at

night and peace and tranquility in daylight. The training of the hand and the eye is very important. The Indians have not yet learnt to estimate the value of trained organs of sense. All our organs of sense when trained constitute a value, a commercial asset and add to the nation's wealth. The French trained their eye and they lay the whole fashionable world under tribute. They have trained their tongue and the Englishmen though naturally proud and self contained would not eat his poultry, unless they are called poult and dindon".

While speaking at another session of the Legislative Council, Gopabandhu asserted in favour of the introduction of vocational subjects in primary schools. He said : "Primary education should be directed to the training of hands. Training of brain only without corresponding education of the hands reminds me of the man who adds power to the mechanism of motor car in order to put more power to the car without providing wheels. You may put as much petrol as you like in the car, but you cannot make it move without wheels. It will never advance without wheels, it will burst and that is really the case when brain power is increased without corresponding improvement of manual skill. Human mind must have communication with the hands. We often hear of the people speaking of the development of industrial and technical education, but anybody who has practical experience of the question must admit that the difficulty in this country arises from want of supply of skilled labour. We must not lose sight of the fact that India is a country where higher classes appropriate to themselves, or I should say misappropriate, the advantages of education, leaving other classes to be untouchable and detestable and it is those lower classes who can help us in the development of the industries of this country. Therefore, their hands must be strengthened if I may use such an expression, we must impart intelligence to their hands[14].

To meet the criticism that education was too literary, a committee was appointed in 1922 to formulate proposals for vocational education. The orders were passed by Govern-

ment on their recommendations. Those orders related mainly to secondary schools, considering that in primary schools it was obviously unreasonable "to expect more than the most elementary instruction in non-literacy subjects".[15]

A resolution, recommending that in all public schools arrangements should be made for training boys and girls above the age of ten in the art of spinning by the charkha, was adopted in the Legislative Council in 1923. Accordingly, the Government issued orders in April 1924 to the effect that spinning should be introduced as a compulsory vocational subject for girls below ten years of age in all girls' schools and as an optional subject in boys' primary schools for boys over ten years of age. In the latter case, cotton was to be supplied by parents or other persons living in the localities[16].

The District Boards of Orissa hastened to take steps to introduce spinning in the primary schools. In some quarters there was a tendency to use it for political purposes. On the outcome of the study of spinning, G. E. Faucus, reported in 1925 as follows : " It is to be regretted that there has been a tendency in some districts to abuse this concession for political purposes. The teaching of spinning seems to have little value as an intellectual training. The work being purely mechanical, it remains to be seen how far its economic value will popularise it. The noise of the wheels interrupts the work of the classes engaged in other subjects and the process must be tedious"[17].

The circular issued in July 1925 made it clear that to teach spinning at the cost of the education of the boys would lead the Government to reasonable belief that this was being utilised for political purposes. The circular issued in 1925 laid down that the teacher of a School could be asked to learn spinning, only if one-third of the parents of the boys of second, third and fourth classes of a school showed their intention in writing that they wanted their boys to learn spinning. The circular further stated that one spinning master could be appointed for each sub-division.

The above circular was a subject of bitter controversy and criticism. It was impossible for one spinning master to manage nearly 300 Gurus that were to be taught. It was said that the Government was thus discouraging the teaching of spinning. It was demanded that spinning should be introduced in the Guru Training Schools as these schools supplied gurus to the primary schools[18].

After 1927, spinning was gradually losing its popularity. Comparatively little use was made of the option extended to boys[19]. Charkhas were distributed free but were normally lying unused in schools. The appointment of spinning instructors by District Boards had no appreciable effect[20].

The Upper Primary Schools in Angul made their interesting experiments in agriculture and tried a new chemical manure in 1929. Some of the primary schools in Cuttack tried experiments in sericulture[21].

Syllabus of 1933

By 1927 it was realised that improvement in the quality of primary education was more necessary than the numerical expansion. One of the most difficult problems connected with the primary education was that of stagnation, that is to say, the waste of educational effort. This resulted from the fact that large number of children never got beyond the class I and therefore, did not learn to read and write. This was also indicated by the Report of Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission. This stagnation was due to variety of causes. One important reason was the defective curriculum[22].

The Primary Education Committee which concluded its labours in September 1933 after sitting for 2½ years, outlined a new syllabus. It was intended to improve the very low standard of education attained in the Primary Schools. The conspicuous feature of the new syllabus was that it provided for modern method of teaching instead of old alphabetical method. The new syllabus covered six years in all instead of

five. It would include a lower primary course of four years instead of three. This was in recognition of the fact that the minimum period of schooling normally required, for the attainment of literacy, was four years[23].

The new syllabus was introduced in January 1935. It was hoped that it would prove an important step in the advanc to wipe out illiteracy[24]. S. Solomon, Secretary to Government of Bihar and Orissa stated : "The achievement of the desired result will clearly depend on the cooperation of parents, many of whom themselves illiterate peasants have in the past appeared to consider that a year or two at most of the lower primary course was ample to give their offspring the hallmark of enlightenment".[25]

By the end of 1936, satisfactory progress was made in the modern method of teaching how to read. The old alphabet method was gradually being abandoned. Some success had been achieved in breaking the monotony and dullness of school work for beginners by the use of manuscript word cards, locally prepared reading sheets, and beautifully illustrated simple stories and counting sheets. As pointed out by the Director of Public Instruction, the new syllabus represented an important step which should help to bring out a substantial improvement in primary education[26].

TRAINING OF THE PRIMARY TEACHERS

Gradually it was becoming clear that the scarcity of trained teachers was one of the main causes of the limited progress in primary education. The great majority of the persons who were then working as primary school teachers had not received a general education which extended beyond the primary standard. It was said that if the teachers in the primary schools were not properly trained, there was a real risk that the large grants which the Government were making for primary education would be more or less wasted. Hence the question of training of the primary teachers was considered in all seriousness.

Opening of Guru Training Schools

As a result of the recommendations of the Simla Conference, the Government of Bengal evolved in 1902 a scheme for the opening in each subdivision of a school for the training of primary school teachers. These institutions were known as Guru Training Schools (Schools for the training of primary school teachers). 10 Guru Training Schools were established in Orissa. The number of gurus who received training in each school was limited to ten.

Thess schools were designed not only for the instruction of the new entrants, but also for the training of teachers already employed. During a course of two years, the students spent their time partly in acquiring some knowledge of drawing, school gardening and other subjects, and partly in learning a manual on the art of teaching and in teaching the children in the nearby school.

The teachers whose education did not extend beyond the lower primary standard were to continue their general education upto the Upper Primary Standard. But in the case of a man who was not employed as a teacher, but who wished to join one of these institutions with the object of becoming a teacher, it was prescribed that he must have reached at least the upper primary standard. The general education of such a man at a training school was carried upto the middle vernacular standard. This was also the arrangement made in the case of a man already employed as a teacher who had passed the upper primary standard. A student who already reached the middle vernacular standard was required to undergo a course of training for one year only.

The staff of each Guru Training School consisted of a headmaster and an assistant master. The Headmaster or Headpandit received a salary upto Rs. 9/- a month from public funds and was allowed at the same time to levy fees from the students attending the school. The assistant master or second pandit received a salary of Rs. 7/- a month. This arrangement had since been modified more than once. In December 1903,

the pay of Headpandit was increased from Rs. 9/- to Rs. 12/- a month. In March 1904, an order was issued auothorising Inspector of Schools to distribute the fees realised from the pupils of the practising schools between the Headpandit and second pandit of the training school. In July 1904, the salary of Headpandit was raised to Rs. 18/- a month in ordinary cases and Rs. 20/- to Rs. 22/- a month in certain expensive localities. The salary of the second pandit was at the same time raised to Rs. 10/- a month. The arrangement for the distribution of the fees realised from the pupils in the practising schools remained unchanged. It was provided that, if possible, the Headmaster was to be a man who had been trained at a first grade vernacular training school.

Every guru who gave up his work as a teacher to join one of these schools was to receive during his period of training a stipend of Rs. 3/- a month. But a guru who was working in a neighbouring primary school was allowed to continue his school work, and at the same time, to undorgo the course of training[27].

Extension of the Scheme of Guru Training Schools

As the existing Guru Training Schools were inadequate to supply necessary trained teachers to the primary schools of Orissa, it was decided to open additional schools. That means, steps were taken to establish one extra school in each Sub-division.

A sum of Rs. 1,91,000/- was alloted in 1906-07 for the building of new schools and the improvement of existing ones. Orders were issued to the effect that from 1 January 1908, any school, for which buildings were not ready on that day, was to be housed temporarily in rented quarters. Each school was to accommodate 16 students, 8 in the first and 8 in the second year, and every headmaster was allowed one more assistant master.

The new schools recently sanctioned were, to start with, to receive none but teachers who were actually employed in

lower primary schools whose general education had been carried upto, at least, the lower primary standard[28].

When this scheme had been in operation for two years, it was considered to have attained sufficient success to be worth establishing more firmly. The following suggestions were made in this connection.

Firstly, the schools should be regarded as permanent institutions, not peripatetic, and so suitable accommodation should be provided for the teachers and students under training as early as possible. Secondly, stipends were to be raised, where necessary, to rates ranging from Rs. 5/- to Rs. 10/- a month, according to the local requirements. Thirdly, admissions for the present were to be confined to teachers who had entered the profession and whose education had been at least upto the lower primary standard. Fourthly, the number of students admissible for each training school was to be raised from 10 to 16. Fifthly, the number of teachers engaged upon the staff of each school was to be raised from two to three.

All these suggestions for the improvement of the Guru Training Schools were accepted by the Government and were put into effect at once[29].

Views of Rai Madhusudan Rao Bahadur on the working of the Guru Training School

Rai Madhusudan Rao Bahadur, Inspector of Schools, Orissa Division, saw in the system, even as reformed, defective in one important respect. That was absence of sufficient guarantee for three things. Firstly, the managers of Lower Primary Schools should reemploy trained teachers on the completion of their period of training. Secondly, the teachers so trained would return to their schools. Thirdly, the improvement of their position to which they would naturally consider themselves entitled by reason of their increased efficiency would be secured to them. But he believed that this drawback was, however, bound to disappear when the great scheme of free primary education became an accomplished fact.

Madhusudan Rao further stated that no development of the Guru Training School system could solve, to any appreciable extent, the question of improving the general body of primary school teachers. But he had no doubt that the system, if worked and maintained with due interest and care, would increase the number of well-organised and well-taught primary schools. 'In order that the great task of improving the teaching in the vast majority of primary schools might be faced and undertaken at once', he considered most desirable to utilise the system to the fullest extent possible by the inauguration of an ancillary scheme of training classes.

This scheme was as follows. Each class was to consist of 2 or 3 monitors or pupil teachers receiving as stipends Rs. 3/- per head. They were to undergo training for not more than a year under a stipulation binding them to serve as teachers on the completion of their course of training. These classes were to be opened in connection with well-organised primary schools worked under certificated and competent teachers. In his humble opinion, this would surely accomplish excellent results in the desired direction[30].

Various measures to increase the efficiency of the Guru Training Schools

There was a general concensus of opinion among the officers of the Education Department that standard of accomplishment in the Guru Training Schools was by no means high. They complained of the poor abilities of the trained gurus. In many instances, they did not possess desired capacity. The cause was partly the unsatisfactory nature of the raw material that was dealt with in these institutions, but still more the poor quality of the training staff. The general feeling was that a better class of gurus was called for and a better class of teachers[31].

The gurus were mainly trained in the Guru Training School by their Head Pandit. But they were men of poor qualification. They were reported to be inexperienced young

men, hardly able to maintain discipline or impart a sound knowledge in the art of teaching to the Guru pupils, they had to train. The quality of these man would improve with the reform of the first grade training school of which they were alumni, and improvement of their position, by the increase of pay and prospects[32].

In order to ensure the availability of a better class of these teachers, efforts were made to carry out in full the improvement scheme of the first grade training school at Cuttack. Besides, in 1909-10, the service of the Head Pandits were declared pensimable.

The difficulty hitherto experienced in connection with the construction of buildings for these schools had, since the close of the year 1909, been solved by the Government on issuing orders that henceforth the work would be executed by the Public Works Department[33].

For the improvement of the character of the work done in the Guru Training Schools, it was considered essential to place Guru Certificate Examination on a more systematic footing than at present. It was at present conducted by the Deputy Inspector and there was a separate set of questions for each school. As this officer had to hold the Primary Examination at the same time, the work was imperfectly done and the test was far from thorough. It was, therefore, suggested that the final examination of Guru Training Schools should be a public examination uniform for all the Guru Training Schools[34].

Many gurus were unwilling to undergo training and many of the trained Gurus were reluctant to resume teaching work, owing no doubt to the poor remuneration offered to trained teachers. But there seemed to be hardly any remedy for this state of things until the guru's income was substantially raised in due course[35].

The four important changes were introduced during the year 1912-13, which had undoubtedly far-reaching effects. The first was the fixing of Rs. 7/- as the lowest rate of stipend admissible to a guru who had passed the final examination of

a Guru Training School. In the past, it was only too common for a guru, who received Rs. 7/- while under training, to draw a stipend of Re. 1/- or Rs. 2/- on return to his school. It was, therefore, not surprising that a large number of gurus on leaving the Guru Training Schools sought employment in more remunerative walks of life. It was noticed that after the introduction of the said reform, there was keen competition for admission to Guru Training Schools, and that a number of trained gurus who would have left the Department were returning to work. There was a general concensus of opinion that it would no longer be difficult to fill the schools to their utmost capacity.

In the second place, funds were made available for construction of the hostel buildings of these schools and for providing each of them with a kitchen. By the close of 1912, practically all these buildings were completed. In the past, Inspector of Schools had often pressed for the allocation of funds for the erection of kitchen, as a hostel without a kitchen was absolutely and entirely useless. It was only in 1912 that some steps were taken in this direction.

In the third place, the pay of Head Pandit was raised and a separate graded service was created for them with pay ranging from Rs. 18/- to Rs. 30/-. Director of Public Instruction stated : "It was doubtful whether even now the prospects offered to these officers were quite adequate, for their duties were of a most responsible nature and their work often carried on in places which were seldom visited by Inspecting Officers". One officer indeed went so far as to urge the appointment of a trained graduate to take charge of each school. It was argued that although a trained graduate would be able to exercise more authority over the pupils under training, it was doubtful whether he would take so much interest in his pupils as a Pandit drawn from their own class.

Lastly, orders were issued during the year that the Guru Training School Examination should be held simultaneously with the scholarship examination and that uniform papers

should be set for all the schools. This arrangement was said to be a great advance upon the system which previously prevailed. It was hoped that by introducing an element of competition among the different schools, it would prove a strong incentive to satisfactory work[36].

Each of the Government Guru Training Schools with its practising Upper Primary School had three teachers. Since 1912 the Head Pandit was in the graded service and his pay ranged from Rs. 18/- to Rs. 30/-. The majority of the second pandits drew Rs. 10/- per month and the third pandit Rs. 8/-. It was alleged that the staff was still under-paid and inadequate. A scheme for strengthening it which received the approval of the Government in 1917 was as follows: The Head Pandits were placed in the vernacular Teachers' Service. Instead of two assistant teachers, there would be three at each school on salaries of Rs. 15/-, Rs. 12/- and Rs. 12/-. This reform was expected to effect a lot of improvement in the work of the Guru Training Schools[37].

Each of these schools was imparting training to 16 pupils in 1905. Their number was raised to 20 in 1919. In 1923 the number of seats was reduced again to 17 on the ground of the paucity of funds. It was said that even if each school was to turn out seventeen pupils annually, the supply would be almost adequate if these pupils were all to take up teaching as a profession[38].

The Guru Training system thus established proved to be advantageous in several ways. Firstly, gurus had less distance to go from their homes. Secondly, the most of the schools were situated in places where living was cheap. Thirdly, each of the schools was designed to train seventeen teachers, for all of whom hostel accommodation was provided. Of course, due to paucity of funds, it had been possible to arrange for more highly paid teachers and closer supervision generally[39].

It was still felt essential to offer better pay, so that qualified men might be attracted to come forward for training

and after training, might be retained in the profession. Obviously, the question of increase of the pay of the teachers of the elementary schools was considered by the Government. In the pursuance of the recommendations of Primary Education Committee of 1914, the stipends paid to teachers of the primary schools were raised. The rate of stipend recommended by the Primary Education Committee of 1923-24 was introduced. It was the usual practice that each teacher shared the fees collected from the students. In 1925, the pay received by each primary teacher was, on the average. not much in excess of Rs. 13/- per month. The Director of Public Instruction, regretfully reported in the same year : "Unfortunately the prospectus offered to those who complete the course at the training schools are not still sufficient to attract them to the schools".[40]

In accordance with the advice of Primary Education Committee of 1923, a committee was appointed to advise Government as to the system of training to be adopted in Guru Training Schools. Orders were passed on their recommendations by 1927 to the following effect. The course was made one year instead of two years. But the trainees must have passed Middle Examination before their training began. Each School was given a head teacher in the subordinate educational service instead of the present head teacher in the vernacular teachers' service. There would be also two teachers in the latter service. The practising schools maintained by the Government would be closed and the local bodies would be asked to provide the necessary facilities[41].

In 1912 less than 13 percent of the elementary teachers were trained while in 1928, 38 percent were trained although the number of teachers had increased by 61 percent in the interval. The official view was that the increase was satisfactory, considering the inability of the Government and the local bodies to provide required funds[42].

The Primary Education Committee of 1931 recommended the following measures in respect of elementary training

schools. Firstly, the head pandits of elementary training schools should be held responsible that every pupil at the end of his course was competent to teach and to organise a cource in some handwork. Secondly, the places should be reserved in elementary training schools, where necessary, for the training of teachers belonging to the depressed and backward classes. These recommendations were accepted and given effect by the Government without delay[43].

By 1935, the working of the elementary training schools had shown some signs of improvement. To make these schools more successful, Government adopted some measures in 1935. Trained graduate headmasters, were appointed in the place of the pandits now employed. The syllabus too was thoroughly revised so as to lay more stress on handwork, practical teaching and preparation of schemes of lessons than on the mere revision of the middle vernacular course of studies. These measures, it was hoped, would tend to improve the standard of elementary training[44].

Throughout the entire period, the need for improved pay among the primary school teachers was keenly felt both in order to keep up the supply to Guru Training Schools and to attract to the profession a class of properly qualified men. But no satisfactory increase of the pay of the elementary school teachers was made by 1936.

Government's instructions to pay the gurus the prescribed minimum scales of pay had not been observed by the local bodies often. They could not do so because of the inadequacy of financial resources at their disposal. Hence, the Guru Training Schools could not render expected service to the cause of primary education. The elementary training schools were admittedly inefficient by 1936. This was one of the main causes of the failure of the general primary education system of Orissa as revealed by the low percentage of pupils attaining literacy.

There were 13 Guru Training Schools in Orissa in 1936 training middle passed men by one year's course. The British

administrative anthorities admitted in 1936 that the development of elementary training school system was highly satisfactory. It was stated : "The reorganisation of Guru Training Schools was a matter of vital importance as the efficiency of instruction imparted in primary schools depended mainly on an adequate provision of trained and competent teachers. It is being increasingly realised that the present day primary school teacher is unable to assist properly in that formation of character and discipline which must form the foundation of a well balanced educational system"[45].

SALARIES OF THE PRIMARY TEACHERS

System of payment by results

In Orissa, system of payment of teachers on results prevailed since 1878. The Education Commssion of 1882 approved of the system of payment by results. It recorded that, as a general rule, aid to primary schools should be regulated, to a large extent, according to the results of the examinations. But, in their opinion, an exception was to be made in the case of schools established in backward districts or under peculiar circumstances, to which cases the application of special rules would probably be desirable. This recommendation was accepted by the Government of Bengal in the Resolution of 23 October 1884[46].

For the following reasons, the system of payment by results was maintained for about a quarter of a century until the year 1902-03, when it was replaced by the system of payment of teachers by subsistence and deffered allowance. Firstly, the system enabled the Inspector to apply praise or blame to any primary school with an amount of firmness. Secondly, it made impossible for any school to pay less attention to the examination of individual pupils. Thirdly, it ensured that State aid was not wasted by being given where there was no educational result. Fourthly, it acted as a powerful stimulus to managers and teachers of the schools. Fifthly, it enabled the Department to get rid of many troublesome

questions about the character and trustworthiness of the management. Lastly, it enabled the Department readily to compare the results obtained in different schools and different districts.

The system of payment by results was not free from drawbacks. Firstly, it led to uncertainty of the tests, owing to the variations of standards, applied by Inspectors, or accidental absence of scholars, or accidental failure to show their real form under examination. Secondly, it tended to give most aid to managers who required it least and least to teachers who needed it most. Thirdly, it tended to create antagonism between managers and Inspecting officers. Fourthly, it required for its universal application a large inspecting agency. Fifthly, it crushed out variety in courses and standard of instruction. Lastly, it made examinations the main object of the thoughts, alike of pupils and of teachers[47].

Stipendiary System

The Simla Conference of 1901 condemned the system as uncertain in operation and tending to encourage cramming. The Government of India acquiesced in the view of the conference and ordered that the system of payment by result was to be replaced by a system known as stipendiary system. It came into effect in Orissa from 1902. Under the system, each teacher was to be paid by way of a monthly stipend or subsistence. This might not exceed Rs. 5 for a Head Teacher and Rs. 3 for an assistant. It was to be determined by a variety of considerations such as (1) number of pupils regularly attending the schools, (2) quality of the instruction given, and (3) the general character of the school as ascertained by Inspecting officers. In considering the regularity of the attendance, local authorities were directed to make allowance for local conditions which might require the closing of Primary Schools due to the monsoon rains or the exigencies of cultivation or harvesting.

On the introduction of the system, many Gurus felt

disheartened. Some of them abandoned school mastering and some closed their schools to try their future in other schools. But the period of uncertainty was over soon. On the whole, the stipendiary system also known as system of subsistence and differed allowance worked well and was an improvement of the system which it had superseded. It was said that if it was to achieve the object with which it was framed, it must be carried out 'on a more liberal scale than at present prevailed'.

The Government of Bengal left to District Boards the power to fix the rates at which grants to aided schools were to be paid under the stipendiary system. The Upper Primary Schools received the grants in the form of stipends alone; but the lower primary schools received subsistence allowance of Re. 1 a month, provided they had not less than ten pupils on the rolls, and five in average attendance[48].

The salary paid to the Gurus in the form of stipends and subsistence was too inadequate. Because of the poor salary, the qualified people did not feel attracted to join the teaching profession. While stipenidary system had brought the schools under better control, it had to the same time furnished an excuse to parents and guardians to diminish the payments from private sources, which formed a part of the traditional income of primry school teachers[49]. The Inspector of Schools, Orissa Division wrote : "There seems to be no doubt that a fairly efficient system of primary educatiom can be established in this Division on the grant-in-aid basis. The grant-in-aid must, however, be large enough to enable the Department to exercise some control over the schools".

The Magistrate of Cuttack thought that the stipends which were less than Rs. 2 a month were of no practical value. The Magistrate of Puri wrote as follows in a similar strain. The efforts of the subordinate inspecting staff wers unavailing owing to the small stipends—annas 8 to Re 1 monthly in the majority of the cases, which were granted by the Department to these schools. In such circumstances, the inspection of

lower primary schools was perfunctory and the strengthening in recent years of the subordinate inspecting staff had been unproductive of results. The District Board of Cuttack in an attempt to get control over at least some of the lower primary schools was for granting no stipend less than Rs. 2 a month. But such action would necessitate a large reduction in the number of aided lower primary schools, the proposal was not endorsed by the Department.

Many of the trained Gurus were unwilling to resume teaching work owing no doubt to the poor remuneration they could expect to get. It was too common for a Guru who received Rs. 7 while under training to return to his school and to draw there a stipend of Re 1 or Rs. 2.[50]

Measures to enhance the salaries of the Primary Teachers

The problem before the Government was that in order to improve the quality of the teaching, the teachers in the primary schools should be offered higher remuneration. In 1912 an important measure was adopted to improve the pay of the teachers. That was the fixing of Rs. 7 as the lowest rate of stipend admissible to a Guru who had passed the final examination of a Gura Training School. The fixing of the minimum stipend had not only the effect of attracting better type of teachers into primary schools but it had also made Gurus more ready to come forward for training.

The Primary Education Committee of 1914 enquired into the question of the stipend paid to the Gurus. In their opinion, while it was desirable to increase the stipends of untrained gurus as far as funds permitted, the grants received from Government should in the first instance be used for raising the stipends to trained men to the following rates.

(a) for Gurus who had passed the vernacular mastership Examination ... Rs. 12

(b) for Gurus trained on the Middle Vernacular basis Rs. 9

(c) for Gurus trained on the Upper Primary basis Rs. 7

Although the Government accepted the above recommendation,

they expressed the opinion that incremental salaries were better calculated to secure continued satisfactory work than higher fixed salaries[51].

The Auxiliary Committee of Indian Statutory Commission pointed out that one of the main causes of the stagnation of primary education was want of qualified teachers. It was recognised that the difficulty of obtaining satisfactory teachers was "largely due to the low rate of pay offered, which can hardly attract full time teachers with a love of their profession". While the average monthly salary of a qualified primary school teacher was Rs. 26 in Punjab, it was only Rs. 9 in Orissa. In actual practice, the present minimum stipend paid to them varied from Rs. 2 to Rs. 9 according to the qualifications of the teachers.

The rate of stipend recommended by the Education Committee of 1923-24 had been approved by the Government and introduced in all seriousness. A teacher trained on the Middle Vernacular basis was not to receive less than Rs. 12 ; a teacher trained on the Upper Primary basis less than Rs. 9 ; an untrained teachers with Middle Vernacular qualifications less than Rs. 7 ; or any teacher less than Rs. 4. These rates were in addition to the sums which teachers received in fees. Where there were no fees, the minimum was to be higher by Rs. 3 in each case and in municipalities a further Rs 2 was required[52].

The pay of the primary teachers was considered still very low. There was an urgent need for improved pay for them to attract to the profession a properly qualified set of men. The Secretary to the Government of Bihar and Orissa wrote : "The pay of the teachers is still miserably inadequate and it appears inevitable that the question still remains one of the thorniest in the path of the educational reform for many years to come".

But two arguments were advanced against the increase of the pay of the primary teachers. Firstly, so great was the number of teachers that any general improvement in their pay

would necessarily be costly. Secondly, about 70 percent of the teachers employed had no other qualification than that of having through the lower primary school[53].

The question of the pay of the teachers was still considered a matter of the gratest importance. The average stipend of the teachers amounted to Rs. 8-12-0 per month, although there were many teachers who were drawing Rs. 3 or less per month. Of course, these stipends were augmented by the fee income. The average fee income of the schools amounted Rs. 36 a year or Rs. 3 monthly. The primary school teacher was therefore lucky if he got an income of Rs. 10 a month. Obviously, high standard of teaching could not be expected from him.[54]

The unattractiveness of the profession was further proved by the wastage that occurred in trained teachers. During the five years ending 1921-22, 1500 teachers were trained for various primary schools of Orissa. But at the end of the period, there were only 900 more trained teachers than there had been before. There could be no doubt that a large part of this wastage was due to the fact that trained teachers found other walks of life more attractive.

In 1925 improved rates of pay with triennial increments were prescribed for the various classes of primary teachers, subject to the conditions stated below :

	Minimum Rs.	*Triennial increment* Rs.	*Maximum* Rs.	
(a) Teachers who had passed the teachers' certificate examination.	30	2	50	If employed in Middle School.
(b) Teachers who had passed the final vernacular mastership examination	20	2	40	
(c) Teachers who had passed the middle standard and had been trained	12	1	17	
(d) Teachers who had passed a lower standard and had been trainad	10	1	15	
(e) Untrained teachers who had passed the middle standard	8	1	13	
(f) Untrained teachers who had passed a lower standard	5	1	10	

(i) The grants of increments should not be promised definitely but should depend on funds beiug available.

(ii) An extra Rs. 3 should be added in cases in which no fees were charged, or in the case of teachers in schools for aboriginal pupils or for the depressed classes.

(iii) A monthly allowance of one rupee might be given to the Head Teacher of each Upper Primary School[55].

To what extent was the pay of teachers was actually raised might be seen from the following table :

Nature of employment	*Average pay in 1926-27* Rs.	*Average pay in 1921-23* Rs.
Board Schools	12.8	13
Municipal Schools	18	13.8
Privately Managed Schools	9.9	8.5

The new rule under the Local Self Government Act which gave a District Board power to transfer a stipendiary teacher was causing much discontent. It was pointed out that while the rate of pay did not suffice for men living at home, it was painfully insufficient for a teacher who had to keep up two separate establishments. The Director of Public Instruction regretfully reported in 1927 that despite the rise in the pay of the primary teachers, the average strength of a primary school had only risen from 28 in 1923 to 32 in 1927[56].

The absence of further recurring grants coupled with a recognition of the fact that budgets must be balanced, had the effect on the pay of the teachers in 1931-32 as may be seen from the following table :

Class of School	*Average pay in 1926-27* Rs.	*Average pay in 1931-32* Rs.
Board Schools	12.8	11.1
Municipal Schools	18.0	16.9
Privately Managed Schools	9.9	9.2

Because of the reasons mentioned above, the local bodies were no longer in a position to pay at the rate fixed in 1925-26. In fact, they were becoming unable to pay trained teachers more than those were untrained. Further, the income which the teachers derived from fees was not at all large. The average annual fee paid by a pupil was only Rs. 1-1-7. It must be added that by no means all the pupils paid fees and boys whose parents were not assessed to the Chaukidari tax on account of poverty or aboriginals were not required to pay the fees[57].

By 1936 the cut in grants to local bodies for primary education had been restored in full and advantages had been taken to ensure that the Gurus employed in Primary Schools were properly paid. In the case of these boards whose resources were inadequate for the payment of all teachers at the prescribed rates, Government had fixed the number of teachers who must be paid at the prescribed rates as a condition of the payment of the additional grant. Government hoped that local bodies would act on these instructions which would help to improve the efficiency of Primary Schools[58].

Even after the adoption of the aforesaid measures, the pay of the teachers was not considered satisfactory. Much still remained to be done in improving it. As a result, the difficulty of obtaining capable teachers, one of the major obstacles to the improvement and expansion of primary education, continued. J. W. C. Jackson, the Secretary to the Government of Bengal admitted : "The pay of a Primary School teacher is barely a living wage and any expansion of Primary education is to be deprecated until the profession is made more attractive."[59]

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Chapter Three

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary Education was imparted by the Middle Schools and High Schools.

The schools coming under the scope of Middle Schools were broadly of two types. One was the Middle English (M.E) School with English as a compulsory subject in the curriculum and led to the High School stage. The other type was known as Middle vernacular schools. Here English was not a compulsory subject of study. It was intended to be very largely a complete course in itself. The middle schools in Orissa had a special place in the educational system as a smaller and less expensive self contained type of institution more suited to the rural areas than the High Schools. Teachers for the primary schools were recruited from these schools.

The M.E. School provided a four year course of study after the lower primary stage. The first two years in these schools corresponded to upper primary course with the addition of the teaching of English. The middle vernacular schools added two years of education in Modern Indian Language after the upper primary stage. High Enlish (H.E) School provided a four year course of study after the middle stage. The medium of instruction in the non-language subjects in the high schools was English. Almost all the high schools in Orissa contained the M.E. classes as well.

A comparison of statistics showed that during the past 15 years (preceeding 1905), High English Schools rose from 7 to 12 and Middle English Schools from 39 to 46, while Middle vernacular schools fell from 51 to 38. This showed that the vernacular secondary schools had been steadily declining in popularity ever since the pupils passing from such schools were prevented from obtaining admission to Medical and Survey Schools and to the Mukteership examination[1].

At the opening of the twentieth century, the state of secondary education was far from satisfactory both from the quantitative and qualitative point of view. The famous Government Resolution on Education Policy of the year 1908 aimed at improving and extending secondary education in very many ways. The suggestion contained therein included : (i) employment of only trained teachers in secondary schools ; (ii) enhancement of Salaries of the teachers ; (iii) proper school accommodation ; (iv) introduction of improved courses of studies ; (v) introduction of manual training and improved science teaching ; (vi) enhancement of grants-in-aid and encouragement for the establishment of new aided institution ; (vii) establishment of training college and improvement of training school system ; (viii) foundation of Government Schools where necessary. The period under review saw the extension and improvement of secondary education on the basis of the guidelines indicated above[2].

GRANTS-IN-AID SYSTEM

For the expansion of secondary education, the Government continued to rely mainly on private enterprise assisted by Grants-in-aid and subject to certain control. The Government policy was to concentrate attention on primary education and avoid a very real danger of over-interference in the more advanced type of educational institution, the management of which was to lay within the sphere of local control. Until 1936, Government had generally followed the policy of not attempting to provide secondary education but of aiding local effort whenever this was forthcoming[3].

Government provided and maintained one high school at each district headquarters to serve as a model to other schools. The secondary schools aided by Government were generally maintained by Managing Committees and depended almost entirely on the Government grant and the fee income.

The rules for Grant-in-aid to schools were revised in 1905. The principle was not changed but the scope of Government

assistance was slightly enlarged and the conditions insisted upon were made a little more exacting. The employment of Graduates and trained teachers made one of the conditions of Government aid

The maximum limit fixed by the rule was that the Grant to high schools should not exceed one half of the income guaranteed from private sources, except in backward parts where the grants might equal two-thirds of the amount so guaranteed. For middle schools, grants were not ordinarily to exceed two-thirds of the whole of the income guaranteed from private sources, except in backward parts. The term "private sources" used here included fees[4].

In accordance with the recommendation of the committee appointed by the Government to advise them on the whole subject of primary and secondary education, the rules for grants-in-aid to high schools were modified in 1923 to the following effect. The grants were raised by the sum necessary to cover the cost of annual repairs, the newly created provident fund and a clerk.[5]

In pursuance of the resolution recommended by the Board of Secondary Education, the grant-in-aid rules were modified once again in 1925-26. The revised grant-in-aid rules were based on the principle that the grant should "be equal to the difference between a standard cost of the school and the income that would be produced by fees charged at the standard rate".

The standard cost of a school was to be made up of the following items.

(a) A lump sum for the cost of the teaching staff calculated as follows :

		Rs	a	p	
For a school with less than 10 teachers		52	8	0	a month per teacher
,,	with 10 teachers	525	0	0	,,
,,	with 11 teachers	565	0	0	,,
,,	with 12 teachers	590	0	0	,,
,,	with 13 teachers	630	0	0	,,
,,	with 14 teachers and so on	655	0	0	,,
(b)	For a clerk ...	30	0	0	
(c)	For repair to the building	50	0	0	
(d)	For contingencies including the Library and Prizes ...	45	0	0[6]	

The rates of fees to be charged at the standard rate were as follows.

(i) For Government High Schools Rs. 3-12-0 in class XI ranging down to Rs. 1-12-0 in class IV, with a special scale for aboriginals and untouchables ranging from Rs. 1-12-0 down to four annas.

(ii) For aided High Schools Rs. 3-8-0 in class XI ranging down to Rs. 1-8-0 in class IV, with the same special scale for aboriginals and untouchables.

(iii) For Government and aided middle English Schools Rs. 1-8-0 in class VII, ranging down to four annas in class I, the scale for aboriginals and untouchables ranging from ten annas downwards.

(iv) For Government and aided middle vernacular schools, ten annas in class VII ranging down to four annas in class I.

(v) Lower fees than the above were charged in most of the secondary schools for girls.[7]

The above mentioned rule regarding the grant-in-aid was in operation during the rest of the period under review. But the grant-in-aid system did not work well in Orissa as the private enterprise did not give adequate response. Hence, the progress of secondary education by 1936 was far from

satisfactory. In 1936 the number of High Schools for boys was 24 with 7,290 pupils. Of them, sixteen High Schools were aided. The number of middle English Schools for boys was 92 with 10,121 pupils. All the middle English School' were aided. By 1936 middle vernacular schools almost become extinct in Orissa owing to the marked preference on the part of local bodies for middle English Schools.[8]

INSTITUTION AND ABOLITION OF SCHOOL LEAVING CETIFICATE EXAMINATION

The Secondary Education system had been subjected to severe criticism. Some critics pointed out that it has desirable to differentiate secondary education as governed by the Matriculation standard "from that which may be independent of requirements of the university and thus have a finality of its own". With a view to achieve this end, it was proposed that there should be a bifurcation of the course of studies into two branches—one leading to a school Final Examination and the other to the Matriculation Test. The course of studies leading to school final examination was intended to impart education of practical value.

As per the recommendations of a committee constituted for the purpose of considering the courses of study for the four highest classes of High Schools alternative to the Matriculation course, the Government took the decision of constituting School Leaving Certificate Examination in 1921. This examination was designed to prepare students for commercial or clerical careers or further instruction in special institutions.[9]

While at the Matriculation Examination, a student passed or failed on the written work done on one occasion, the new scheme, while giving due weight to a written examination, was also to take into account the work done during the period spent in school. The scheme was to be introduced in all Government High Schools aided, or unaided.

The examination was to be controlled by an Administra-

tive Board assisted by a Board of studies. The former was to consist of the Director, Assistant Director as ex-official, together with eight members appointed by Government of whom three were to be appointed on the nomination of the University, and two were to represent recognised non-government schools. Atleast three of the members were to be non-officials. The Board of studies which was consist of eight members was to be formed from among the members of the Administrative Board together with such other persons selected by them and approved by Government as might be necessary.

The University had agreed to accept the School Leaving Certificate, provided the candidate had passed in certain specified subjects. The first school leaving certificate examination was held in 1921 when 65 candidates were presented by 7 schoomrs. In the following year, 10 schools presented 93 candidates.[10]

The principal reason why more students did not take up the course leading to School Leaving Certificate was attributed to the following fact. Hitherto for financial reasons, it had only been possible in very few cases to provide for the teaching of subjects other than those already included in the Matriculation course. If such subjects were not taught, the courses for the School Leaving Certificate and Matriculation examination were almost identical. And owing to the prestige of the latter, many more candidates appeared at it, though schools w to prepare candidates for both examinations.

Gradually it became obvious that the maintenance of a School Leaving Certificate examination and Matriculation examination side by side involved an unnecessary duplication of work. Besides, the conduct of the School Leaving Certificate examination involved an expenditure which was scarcely justified by the small number of candidates.[11]

In 1929 a committee was appointed by the Government to examine the alleged deterioration in the standard of matriculates. They suggested certain modifications in the

matriculation syllabus, the most important of them were as follows. The old custom of prescribing text-books in English should be revised. The matriculation course in geography and mathematics should be lightened. Consequent upon the implementation of these recommendations, the importance of matriculation examination had become even greater[12].

Meanwhile, the School Leaving Certificate examination was placed under the management of the University and was held simultaneously with that for matriculation. Since then the number of candidates appearing at the School Leaving Certificate examination had been small, averaging about 40 for the five year from 1927 to 1932. Moreover, few of these had taken any but matriculation subjects. Hence, the School Leaving Certificate Examiuation for High Schools was abolished in 1933.

But it was not intended that the teaching of the subjects required by School Leaving Certificate examination should cease. It was provided that the students, who wished to take them up, would have to do so in addition to the matriculation course and would be given special certificates after a local test held under the supervision of the education department [13]

SECONDARY TRAINING SCHOOL AT CUTTACK

The dictum that efficient schools were not possible without efficient teachers was universally accepted. There was hardly any doubt that teachers employed in the secondary schools were generally inefficient. One of the pressing needs in regard to the secondary education of boys was the improvement of instruction by the reform and extension of the present system for the training of teachers.[14]

For the training of the teachers of the Secondary Schools, there was one secondary training school at Cuttack, which provided a basis for more satisfactory arrangements. But for the training of the masters of the purely High School stages of education of boys, there was not any actual provision at all for considerable length of time.

The secondary training school or first grade training school at Cuttack was entirely maintained at the cost of the Government. It supplied teachers for post Primary Schools, viz., Middle Schools and lower classes of High Schools. The Head Pandits of Guru Training Schools were also drawn from the students of this institution. Its function was, therefore one of extra importance, but there was no room for congratulation in their working.

In 1907 it was alleged that quality of students turned out by this institution was worse in the present than it had been in the past. The main causes to which the deterioration were ascribed were the reduction of the course to two years, and abolition of the practice of holding a public examination at the end of the middle school course. The latter led to admission into the training school of inferior material resulting in the actual lowering of the standard of acquirement attained during the school course. Rai Madhusudan Rao Bahadur, Inspector of Schools, Orissa Division, wrote on this point as follows : "The supply of trained vernacular masters is quite adequate to the local requirements but the quality of such masters has undergone some deterioration in the matter of general scholarship, in consequence of the period of study, having been reduced from three to two years, and of the further circumstances that public examination for middle schools which has recently been instituted is not a test sufficiently stringent and uniform for the purpose of providing eligible students for first grade training school" [5] .

The year 1910 marked an advance in the history of first grade training schools. The scheme for the introduction of a revised course of studies was given effect to form the beginning of the session, 1910-11. Secondly, the term of the training was extended from two years to three years. Moreover, a system of examination had been devised to secure that as many students as possible should undertake the full three years' course, the grant of the final departmental certificate being conditional

upon one years' approved teaching in an recognised school[16].

The sanction was granted during the year 1913-14, to the training of 5 matriculate and non-matriculate English teachers at the first grade Training School at Cuttack. The Inspector of Schools, Orissa did not appear to have made the best use of the new scheme. He did not depute such teachers for training in 1913-14. The enquiry was made as to the reasons for this. It was found that as the practising school attached to the Government Training School at Cuttack was on a vernacular basis, the English teachers of secondary schools did not feel interested to join the Training School. It was, therefore, decided to restore the practising school at Cutttack to the Middle English status[17].

Some officers of the education department resented the decision to convert the said Middle Vernacular School into a Middle English School. Their views were as follows: It was to middle vernacular schools that the Department looked largely for the supply of teachers for primary schools. Hence, every effort should be made to render these schools more efficient, whenever they retained the popularity and consequently fulfilled a useful purpose. And in other cases, where there was a strong local demand for English teaching, they would have to be converted into Middle English Schools. It was necessary to contest against the tendency which prevailed in certain quarters to regard a middle vernacular school "as a mere relic of the past, which should survive only until the funds necessary for the maintenance of a Middle English School were available".

Hence it was definitely decided in 1916 that the practising school attached to the First Grade Training School, should be conducted on a purely vernacular basis and it was given a staff of five teachers[18].

The year 1917 witnessed a very important reorganisation of the higher grade training school at Cuttack. Firstly, under the reorganised scheme, it had provided wite a staff, as detailed below :

One Headmaster in the Provincial Educational Service.

One Assistant Headmaster in the Subordinate Education Service.

One Assistant Master in the Subordinate Education Service.

One Drawing Master in the Subordinate Education Service.

One Pandit on Rs. 30-Re. 1-Rs. 50 in the Subordinate Education Service.

One Drill Master on Rs. 20-Re. 1/-Rs. 25/- in the Subordinate Education Service.

One Cleark on Rs. 25/- Re. 1/- Rs. 35/- in the Subordinate Education Service.

Secondly, it had been given a Middle Vernacular School as a practising school in place of Middle English School with five pandits on a fixed scale of pay. Thirdly, stipend of Rs. 6/- had been provided for each of the 75 pupils which this school was designed to train. Besides, a type-plan had been prepared for the school buildings. The Director of Public Instruction stated : "There is every reason to suppose that the increase of expenditure involved in this scheme will result in greatly increased efficiency in the teaching of the lower classes of the Secondary Schools".[10]

The general qualification for admission to the Government training school was still a pass at the middle examination. It was considered too low a standard. Besides, the course was for three years. It was felt that too much time was being spent on general education. Because, at the same time, students with similar qualifications were being admitted into the Guru Training Schools for one year's course.

In order to remove these deficiencies, a scheme was introduced in July 1923. Under this, ordinarily admission was to be restricted to matriculates. But in the event of too few candidates of this class being forthcoming, non-matriculates might be admitted also. Secondly, the length of the course was reduced from three years to two. Thirdly, stipend of

Rs. 20/- was offered to matriculates and Rs. 10/- to other students. Fourthly, the commencement of the session was altered from January to July so that pupils might be attracted to the schools as soon as they completed their matriculation course. Fifthly, the school was required to concentrate on technical work instead of devoting a large part of their time, as at present, to the general education of their pupils. Lastly, the number of admissions to the two years' course would remain 25 at the school, so that output might be maintained at the present level, and the expenditure on stipends might not be greatly increased[20].

Meanwhile, some minor changes had been introduced at the Secondary Training School at Cuttack. Among them, the following deserve mention. Urdu was made optional subject in 1919 and the study of this subject was to be encouraged by the offer of a special prize. Its purpose was to make some teachers trained in this school capable of teaching muslim students. The school and hostel buildings had been enlarged and a new practising school had been built. Further, the stipends of the pupils with middle qualifications had been raised from Rs. 6/- to Rs. 8/-.

It was hoped that henceforth Government Training School at Cuttack would be very useful as it was to train candidates of a better class. Unfortunately, the supply of candidates with matriculation qualifications had not proved equal to the demand. It resulted in slowing down the output. The number of qualified candidates showing interest for admission into the Government Training School was small mainly because of the low stipends given in the schools and the poor prospects offered to trained teachers.

An regards the first of these points, it was decided to raise the stipends in January 1923 to Rs. 9/- for actual teachers with middle or higher qualifications, Rs. 8/- for actual teachers with lower qualifications, Rs. 7/- for candidates for the teaching profession with middle or higher qualifications and Rs. 6/- for other candidates.

The recruitment of a good class of candidates must necessarily depend upon the offer of more attractive prospects. The great majority of the trained teachers received only Rs. 9/- a month. Though this amount was supplemented by small sums from fees and by occasional further assistance in cash or kind, it no longer provided a living wage for a man with a family who was dependent solely on this profession for his support[21].

Mention should be made at this place of an experiment tried in the year 1926 of monthly stipends of Rs. 25/- to any candidate with intermediate qualifications. This was, no doubt, intended to achieve principal advance in securing a high standard of general education among the pupils of the first Grade Training School. But actually men with intermediate qualifications were found reluctant to join it. Only one student and two students with this qualification turned up in 1927 and 1928 respectively. In all probability, candidates were deterred by the fact that no prospects better than those of trained matriculates were promised to them at the end of the course.

For the following reasons it was pointed out that there was no justification for the payment of higher salary to the trained intermediates so long as they were required to serve as vernacular teachers. Firstly, as vernacular teachers trained intermediates would hardly be better qualified than trained matriculates. Secondly, in due course, with the increase of number of students with intermediate qualifications, the number of such students to the Government Training School would increase without any external stimulus.

In due course, it was found that most of the trainees were matriculates. But many of them were of poor calibre. This was assigned mainly to two reasons. Firstly, the abler matriculates always opted for a degree if they could. Secondly, at the then state of financial stringency, prospects open to trained matriculates were poor. When sufficient matri-

culates were not forthcoming, the role was completed by non-matriculates[22].

The Government had already recognised the necessity of improving the training of teachers. A committee was appointed in 1929 to investigate certain matters in connection with the Secondary Training School. The Committee, which published its report in 1930, made the following recommendations.

Firstly, it was not desirable to admit at present into the secondary Training School men who had passed only the middle standard. Secondly, in making admission, preference should be given to applicants who had done well in the matriculation examination, and within that the preference should be given to knowledge of the vernacular. Thirdly, provision should be made in the arrangements for practice in teaching to give students special training in teaching in the vernacular in all classes from class VII down to class I and also in the work of teaching two classes at the same time. Fourthly, the course of training should be lengthened to 3 years. Fifthly, the changes in the syllabus recommended by the conference of Principals and Headmasters held in November 1928 should be carried into effect.

New syllabus was introduced in 1930 and action was taken on such other recommendations as required. Only matriculates and Intermediates were declared eligible for admission into the Secondary Training School. The provision was made for an annual admission of 30 in the school from 1930. As there was no separate training school for women in Orissa, facilities were provided for their admission from 1932.[23]

The number of trained matriculates and Intermediates turned out by this secondary training school was about 25 a year. It was not adequate to replace the existing untrained teachers in Secondary Schools of Orissa in the near future. In 1936 the number of men teachers employed in M. E. Schools and High Schools of Orissa were 650 of whom 380 were trained. As the Government was not interested in the

rapid progress of secondary education, the question of opening another secondary school did not bother them.

CUTTACK TRAINING COLLEGE

Upto the year 1923, there was no training college in Orissa. Gradually it was realised that the difficulty in obtaining an adequate supply of trained teachers of English for Secondary Schools was a real one. The Cuttack Training College was started in July 1923. It provided a course of training for graduates intending to work as teachers in the High Schools and Sub-Inspectors of Schools. It prepared the students for the Diploma in Education Examination. The course of study extended over one academic year and comprised both theory and practising in teaching.[24]

When the college was started in July 1923, the provision had been made for imparting training to 16 students. The staff consisted of Whitemore, B. N. Mukherji, both of them received special training in England, assisted on a part-time basis by the Headmaster and drawing master of the Ravenshaw Collegiate School and by Dr. Sanatan Pujari. Some difficulty had been experienced in the matter of practical work, but in future this could be overcome by utilising one of the local High Schools for the work, in addition to the Ravenshaw Collegiate School. The hostel accommodation and Principal's residence too, were not perfect. The library was on the small scale. The Principal remarked that in spite of the difficulties as manifested themselves on the inauguration of the new project, the college continued to do good work.

The number of seats was raised to 18 in 1924 and had been further increased to 20 in 1925. There were 17 students in the college on 31 March 1925. Of them, 3 were Government Servants, 2 came from aided schools, and 12 were stipendiary students.[25]

By 1927 the opening of the Cuttack Training College had improved as regards the trained teachers of English. But, of the 168 graduate teachers employed in the High Schools,

only 78 were trained and most of them were serving in Government Schools. The resultant superiority of Government Schools in atleast one respect was shown by their greater success in obtaining passes in the first division [26]

At the close of the year, 1928, the Ravenshaw Collegiate School and the Cuttack Training School were placed under the control of the Principal of the training college. The former was the school in which most of the practice in teaching was done. At times, Town Victoria School and Pyari Mohan Academy were used for practical teaching.[27]

In July 1929, the number of stipends payable by Government was raised to 20 and the staff was strengthened by the appointment of a Lecturer in Mathematics. An excellent hostel was completed and occupied in February 1930.[28]

There was growing demand for the appointment of trained graduates in the High Schools. In view of this fact, the number of seats in the training college was raised from time to time until it reached 30 in 1936. The very high percentage of success achieved by the candidates who appeared at the Diploma in Education Examination during the period, 1930-36, spoke well for the efficiency of the institution. No free-studentship or scholarship was provided to students and no fees were charged. Forty percent of the students were residing in the hostel in 1936. The Hostel was under the supervision of the Principal and was managed by a Prefect elected by the students.[29]

The total number of graduate teachers in the different types of schools in Orissa was 220 in 1936, of whom 150 were trained teachers. Most of them had received training in the Training College at Cuttack.[30]

Introduction of Vernacular as the Medium of Instruction

After 1905, there was persistent demand for a more extended use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction. It led to some important changes relating to the adoption of vernacular as the medium of instruction.

In 1922 it was decided that with effect from next year, translation to and from the Oriental classics at the Matriculation stage should be from and to the vernacular instead of from and to English as in the past. This was comparatively a minor change and was very generally supported by educationists.[31]

Several important questions relating to secondary education were considered by the Education Committee whose report was published during the year 1923. The chief of these was the question of the medium of instruction in High Schools. The committee recognised the fact that a strong desire existed that students should have the option of being educated in their own mother-tongue upto the stage of matriculation examination. They recommended that vernacular should be the medium of instruction in the four highest classes of High Schools[32].

In order to put this recommendation into effect, university regulations were modified to the following effect. In the matriculation examination in subjects other than English and Mathematics, the medium of examination after the year 1928 might be the vernacular offered by the candidate for composition. For any candidate who took a composition paper in English instead of a vernacular, the medium of examination should be English.

After this arrangement in the regulation had been sanctioned, Government of Bihar and Orissa decided that with effect from 1 January 1925, in 11 Government High Schools of Bihar and Orissa where the four highest classes were duplicated, the experiment should be tried of teaching one of the sections through the medium of English and other through the medium of vernacular, spoken by the largest number of pupils. Privately managed schools were at the same time encouraged to introduce the vernacular as the medium of instruction in the four upper classes if this could be done without prejudice to the interest of minorities and if they could find the necessary funds themselves. Experiments were

also to be made to see how far it was possible for one teacher to give instruction in a class through the medium of two vernaculars spoken by the largest number of the pupils at the same time, eg., Hindi and Urdu, or Bengali and Oriya[33].

The difficulties inherent in introducing the vernacular as a medium of instruction in High Schools were well recognised. The number of vernaculars used in the different parts of the province of Bihar and Orissa was to make the correction of written work, in particular, a serious problem and render it impossible to introduce instruction through the medium of the vernacular in all High School classes, without either neglecting the interests of minorities or incurring very great expense in the duplication or triplication of classes.

There was some difficulty, which was gradually disappearing, in obtaining the necessary text-books in the vernaculars. The difficulties were also experienced in finding teachers who were capable of explaining the facts of History and Geography in vernacular. It was found that pupils instructed in the vernacular definitely lost ground in Engish[34].

In a few schools, the vernacular sections of the classes had to be abandoned, owing either to their unpopularity or to the expense involved in duplicating classes. In practically every case, the English section was larger than the vernacular and in some cases, the disparity was great, though allowance had to be made for prejudice against the experiment on the part of parents on the ground that it was new. On the other hand, the vernacular medium was reported to be definitely more popular at four schools.

Moreover, the results of the final examination held at the end of 1929 were inconclusive. Out of 149 pupils in the vernacular sections, 92 passed the examination and out of 326 pupils in the English sections 198 passed, so that the percentage of success was almost exactly the same. Again it could not be assumed that the standard of marking adopted by the English and the vernacular examinations was exactly the uniform.[35]

The Ministry of Education, Government of Bihar and Orissa resolved on 26 September 1930 that the experiment of teaching upto matriculation standard through the medium of vernacular had been in progress for nearly five years but the results obtained were inconclusive. Hence, the Government had decided to continue the experiment for a further period of two years. But opinions generally were divided as to "whether the better progress to be expected in the subjects taught through the vernacular outweighted in value the loss of opportunities of reading in English".[36]

It was plain that the teacher ought to be able to use the vernacular in order that he might explain points of special difficulty and make certain that his pupils had understood him. In order to meet this end, the Board of Secondary Education had made a rule that no person should be appointed to teach in the High School classes in Bihar and Orissa unless he had passed a public examination in Hindi or Urdu, or in Oriya or Bengali respectively. It was also prescribed that a teacher might be appointed if he gave an undertaking to pass the required examination within 18 months from the date of his appointment. For the purpose of this rule, a pass in the vernacular at the matriculation or any higher examination of the university would be accepted.[37]

The experiment of teaching certain subjects in upper classes of some high schools through the medium of vernacular was continued. Suitable text-books in the vernaculars were available gradually, but the experience obtained by 1936 did not furnish any conclusive results.[38]

It was being more and more realised that, the emphasis of English as the medium of instruction in place of Oriya prevented the spread of education of the masses. The Utkal Union Movement which culminated in the creation of separate province of Orissa in 1936 demonstrated the success of first linguistic movement in India. It, no doubt, afforded considerable stimulus to the agitation for making vernacular the medium of instruction in the High Schools of Orissa.

In accordance with the new regulations of the Patna University, Oriya became the medium of instruction in all High Schools in Orissa for the Matriculation examination of 1943 and onwards. The students whose mother-tongue was not Oriya were allowed to answer the questions at the Matriculation examination in Bengali, Hindustani (Urdu and Hindi scripts) or in English. It was reported that owing to the difficulty of technical terminology in science subjects and the want of suitable text-books in Oriya, the various subjects could not be taught well through the medium of Oriya.[39]

CONVERSION OF MIDDLE VERNACULAR SCHOOLS INTO MIDDLE ENGLISH SCHOOLS

Middle vernacular schools taught vernacular course. Middle English Schools taught the same vernacular course, and in addition, English during four years' study from class IV to Class VII.

Middle English Schools were popular and demands were frequently made for an increase in their number. The middle vernacular schools, on the other hand, which provided a similar course, except that no English was taught, were generally unpopular.

The question whether Middle Vernacular Schools should be further encouraged or whether all such schools should be converted into Middle English Schools was under consideration for a long time. In view of the opinions expressed in favour of the use of the vernacular as a medium of instruction in the High Schools, it seemed prima facie undesirable to convert Middle Vernacular Schools into Middle English Schools unless sufficient local demand existed.[40]

There was, undoubtedly, a wide demand from parents and pupils themselves for increased facilities for English education. Parents were anxious for their children to be trained in English as soon as possible, but were not willing to send them away from home when they were still of tender age. In 1925

the Inspector of Schools Orissa observed : "There is no doubt that there is at present strong demand for English teaching for children as close as possible to their homes".[41]

In view of the increasing poularity of English education, it was considered desirable to encourage the conversion of Middle Vernacular Schools into Middle English Schools. But it was commented : "The demand for English teaching comes from parents and pupils themselves, and is in curious contrast with the demand of public men and many experienced teachers for education in the vernacular upto the matriculation stage. It will be interesting to see whether after the experiment in vernacular teaching had been carried on for some years, the demand for middle English schools will fall or not"[42].

Another fact was taken into consideration while taking decision to convert middle vernacular schools into middle English Schools. The standard of English teaching in middle English schools was poor. It would be bad for the High Schools if the boys were to come and claim admission to these schools on the strength of a still poorer knowledge of English acquired in middle vernacular schools[43].

Orders were issued regarding the conditions for the conversion of middle vernacular schools into middle English Schools in the beginning of 1925. The main condition was to be that half of the difference between the standard cost of a middle English and of a middle vernacular school would be forthcoming either from local sources or from the extra fees to be paid by the boys in the English classes or from reliable subscriptions or endowments[44]. As the local bodies in Orissa were enthusiastic about the spread of English education, they were keen to benefit from the above decision of the Government. They allowed the introduction of English teaching into middle vernacular schools where the local income from fees and subscriptions would be sufficient to cover half the extra cost[45].

As time went on, most of the middle vernacular schools

opened English classes. As a result, the number of middle English Schools began to rise and that of middle vernacular schools began to fall. One incentive for the conversion had been that whereas the average cost of a middle vernacular school was Rs. 1,351, that of a Middle Engish School was nearly Rs. 948. The higher cost of the middle vernacular school was because of the fact that fees collected in these schools were higher[46].

Some looked upon the process of conversion of middle vernacular schools into Middle English Schools with great dislike. They expressed their feeling against this in the following words. It might be in the interest of the cleverer children and better class parents. But whether it was in the interest of the country as a whole was more doubtful. Middle Vernacular Schools were often very efficient, and it was from them that the best teachers were obtained for primary schools. The efficiency of many middle English Schools was, on the other hand, 'left much to be desired'.[47]

It was admitted on all hands that Middle English Schools were popular but far from efficient. With a view to improve the efficiency of the Middle English Schools, it was decided to extend to Middle English Schools, the scheme for a public middle examination for a school certificate from 1927.[48]

The tendency for Middle Vernacular Schools to disappear continued. In spite of the fact that English education tended to draw boys away from their village homes, there was a genuine demand for it among the parents. The increase in the number of Middle English Schools gave every promising student a chance to secure some knowlede in English education without going from his home. It was also beneficial in the sense that it helped "to break down the barrier which at present exists between the educated young men and the rural occupation of his family".[49]

The Middle Vernacular Schools to which the Government looked for the supply of the best type of primary school teachers had been extinct by 1936. Many expressed regret

at the preference on the part of local bodies in Orissa for Middle English Schools. It was remarked : "It is possible that a complete reversal of the process which has gone so far will be necessary if we are to attain to a best type of rural secondary school... These seems no doubt however that the best school for rural areas is one from which English is entirely excluded".[50]

INSTITUTION OF MIDDLE SCHOOL CERTIFCATE EXAMINATION

The number of Middle Vernacular Schools began to decrease in the districts of Cuttack, Puri and Balasore, owing to the marked preference on the part of local bodies for Middle English Schools. Although the number of Middle English Schools was gradually increasing, it was well-known that they were far from efficient. The existing examination of boys in class VII of a Middle English School was often no real test at all.

In order to improve the efficiency of Middle English Schools, and also incidentally of High Schools, it was decided to extend to Middle English Schools, with effect from the year 1927-28, the scheme for a Public Middle Examination for a School Certificate. Henceforth, a pupil from a Middle English School in Orissa would have to produce this certificate before he could be admitted to class VIII of a High School. This was a common examination and was to be conducted by the school examination Board[51].

The extension to the Middle English Schools of the scheme for a public middle examination was met with a mixed reception from the public. Its one effect was to stiffen up the test for entry into class VIII of High Schools. Hence many people condemned it.

But the Inspector of Schools, Orissa Division, welcomed the public examination with its resultant improvement in the quality of the work done in middle schools. He advocated the extension of that examination to class VII in the High

Schools for two reasons. Firstly, it would ensure the qualitative improvement of the middle English classes attached to High Schools. Secondly, there would be no difference in the instruction imparted in the Middle English Schools and middle classes attached to High Schools.

The committee appointed by the Government to consider the alleged deterioration in the merit of matriculates in 1929, decided unanimously that the public middle school examination should be retained and extended to class VII in the High Schools. The D.P.I. expressed the view that it was at least desirable to introduce a common standard of examination for pupils in the Middle English Schools and those who were reading in class VII of High Schools[53].

Government took the following decision in the matter. The School Examination Board should set question papers for class VII in High Schools identical standard with those set for the middle school certificate examination. But the examination at High Schools would not be a public examination. The marking of the papers in High Schools should be done by the teachers in each school. Effect was given to this scheme from the examination of 1934[54].

The question papers for the annual examination of class VII of High Schools were set by the School Examination Board for the first time in December 1934. This experiment which was designed to secure a common standard of work in Class VII of High Schools and Middle Schools alike, was generally reported to have been a success in 1935.[55]

CHANGES IN CURRICULUM

Seeing that practically every student of the university came to it from a Secondary School, it wasconsidered necessary to improve the system of secondary education. Apart entirely from the question of university education, it was maintained that system of secondary education should be such that it would lead to the all-round development of the faculties. In the werds of W. W. Hornell, the Director of Public

Instruecction, Bengal, "A secondary system of education ought to be able to do more for a boy than squeeze him through the matriculation examination of the Calcutta University".

He further stated that the domination which the matriculation examination had hitherto exercised over the curriculum of secondary schools, had been most prejudicial not only to the students of the High Schools but also to the students of the colleges. It was suggested that the curriculum of a school should 'be decided on educational considerations and not wholly with reference to an external examination, which is not directly concerned with school education at all".

The candidates from High Schools offered for the Matriculation examination, Mathematics, English, Sanskrit, Bengali or Oriya and a good examination in these subjects was, no doubt, regarded by the University as a perfectly adequate test for its purpose. But many serious persons maintained that such subjects as History, Geography, Drawing and something of Science ought to find a place in the curriculum of a secondary school.

Besides, it was pointed out that every boy, who got admission into a High School, should not study the same course. On the contrary as much a diversity in courses should be allowed as the varying capacities and requirements of boys demanded. But it was stressed: "Some unity of purpose, however, must underline all diversity, if diversity is not to be merely another name for chaos".

The above considerations led to several changes in the curriculum of secondary schools during the period from 1905 to 1936[56].

Particular attention had been paid during the year 1910-1911 to the systematic teaching of Drawing. The subject was made compulsory in all the secondary schools organised on the vernacular basis and was insisted on in the upper classes of government and aided High Schools. In course of time, the teaching of drawing had been much improved

at the Government Schools owing to the appointment of teachers trained at the Calcutta School of Art.

During the period from 1912 to 1917, the experiment of introducing manual training into the curriculum for High Schools was tried in the Government High School at Cuttack. The result was stated to have been encouraging. So Government decided to introduce manual training in other Government High Schools of Orissa [5].

The changes in the curriculum for secondary schools made during the period from 1917 to 1922 were the introduction of a wide series of optional subjects like Mathematics, Sanskrit and Civics, and the prescription of History and Geography as compulsory subjects for Matriculation. History and Geography which had hitherto been separate subjects were now to form one group, so that a candidate might be able to atone for weakness in the one by proficiency in the other[58]. In 1924, the number of optional subjects which a pupil must take up was reduced from two to one, though the pupils were allowed the option of taking up a second[59].

The opening of classes in Science subjects was sanctioned in January 1924 at a number of Government High Schools of the province of Bihar and Orissa. In Orissa, Puri Zilla School was allowed to take up Science subject[60].

In accordance with the recommendations of the committee appointed in 1929 by the Government to examine the alleged deterioration in the standard of Matriculates, the Matriculation course in Geography and Mathematics was lightened.

During the period from 1930 to 1936, some middle schools introduced vocational training chiefly in gardening, farming, tailoring, weaving and carpentry. This pointed to the growing popularity of technical education. A number of teachers were given training in bee-keeping with a view to the introduction of this small industry as a profitable hobby among pupils[61].

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

In 1920, an interesting debate followed the moving of a resolutiou for the development of vocational training in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council. The mover, while admitting that a liberal education in Arts and Science at the secondary level was the soundest foundation for a collegiate education, urged that vocational training should be given in schools before the collegiate standard was reached. Many members criticised the secondary curriculum on the ground that it was too literary.

The Minister, Education stated as follows in his reply : some facilities had already been provided for technical education. University courses in commerce had been prescribed. There were manual training classes in the Ravenshaw Collegiate School and the Balasore Christian High School. Moreover, the vocational education could not be regarded as an alternative to ordinary general education. It was either additional to it or at the most alternative to part of it. Hence, the question of further extension of vocational training could not be considered for the present[62].

The issue of imparting vocational education in the secondary schools was discussed in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council from time to time. One of the allegations which was levelled against Educational authorities by non-cooperators was their failure to provide vocational training.

The Education Committee of 1923 enquired into the point relating to the necessity for introducing vocational subjects in the curriculum. They came to know that there was a genuine popular demand that subjects of this nature should be taught at secondary schools. They were convinced that it should be one of the duties of the school course to fit boys for various grades and profession. The committee made following recommendations in this regard. Firstly, such subjects as agriculture together with surveying, carpentry, weaving, spinning, cane-work, office-work and commerce should be taught in the secondary schools. Secondly, each

student should be allowed, if he so wished, to take up as optional subject not more than one of these vocational subjects[69].

The question of vocational education was discussed by a representative committee appointed by Government in 1922. It was considered by them in the following manner. In primary schools, it was obviously unreasonable to expect more than the most elementary instruction in non-literary subjects. In the primary schools nothing was required beyond making the teaching of school-gardening, nature-study, clay-modelling and paper-work as efficient as possible. In the middle schools and High Schools the vocational subjects with a definite economic object like agriculture, carpentry, weaving and tailoring should be introduced[64].

Acting on the recommendations of the Education Committee of 1923 and the Committee on vocational education, the Government decided to follow the policy of opening vocational subjects in the secondary schools as far as practicable.

By 1930, vocational classes were opened in some middle schools. The Government Middle English Schools at Cuttack and Jagannathpur, the middle vernacular school at Subrampur in Cuttack, the Narayan Chandra Middle English School in Balasore, the Joula Middle English School in Puri each had a carpentry class. The Anglo-Bengali middle English School at Puri, the Ertal Middle School at Balasore, the Rambag School in Cuttack, each maintained a tailoring class. Agriculture was taught at Siddheswarpur M.E. School in Cuttack. R. Jagamohan, the Secretary to the Government of Bihar and Orissa, stated that the opening of these vocational classes was the beginning of a policy to encourage pupils to take up some practical occupation along with the receipt of a suitable measure of general education.

In 1931 the provision for teaching of carpentry had been made at the M. E. School of Gop in Puri where book-keeping and basket-making were taught subsequently. The tailoring

class at Ertal in Balasore had been moved to Basta in the same district in 1931. The Middle School at Ramgarh in Cuttack taught toy-making from 1932.

In general, these vocational classes were reported to be successful and only want of money stood in the way of an increase in their number[65].

PHYSICAL ECUCATION

The Government encouraged the physical training in the secondary schools for the physical development of the students. In due course physical education was made a compulsory subject in all the M. E. and High Schools.

Drill was taught in all the secondary schools for boys. There were whole-time drill instructors at all the Zilla Schools and First-Grade Training School. Drill sheds were provided during the period, 1912-1917 for all Government High Schools for boys. In some cases, drill was reported to be well-taught, but in many privately managed schools, not much attention was paid to the subject.

In 1916, arrangements were made for the training of 4 drill masters of Orissa at Cuttack annually under the control of the Young Men's Christian Association[66]. The Director of Physical Education, Bihar and Orissa, first appointed at the close of the year 1922, held a class for two months in 1923 at Patna in which 17 drill masters were trained. Of them, 5 belonged to Orissa[67].

The Director of Physical education visited the secondary schools of Orissa in July 1923. He did a good deal to lighten up and render more useful the drill periods in the schools of Orissa. As per his suggestions, two specially good drill masters were selected from Orissa and were sent to Patna for a further course. On the completion of the training the best one was posted to the first grade Training School at Cuttack as this school supplied most of the teachers for the secondary schools of Orissa[68].

In 1925, two young men who completed their course of

training in the Young Men's Christian Association School at Madras were posted as Inspectors of Physical Education, one for Patna and Tirhut and the other for Bhagalpur, Chotnagpur and Orissa[69]. The Refresher Courses for drill and gymnastic instruction were held by the Inspector of Physical Education at Cuttack during the year 1927-28. It resulted in appreciable improvement in the quality of the physical instruction given in High and Training Schools.

A third Inspector of Physical Education was appointed at the close of the year, 1927. The seniormost Inspector remained in charge of the whole province but without Patna division as his special charge. Out of the two Junior Inspectors, one remained in charge of Tirhut and Bhagalpur another in charge of Orissa and Chotnagpur[70].

In accordance with the suggestion made by H. C. Beck of the Young Men's Christian Association at Madras, three posts of Inspectors of Physical Education were abolished at the end of the year 1930. It was decided that an Inspector trained at Madras was to be attached to each of the five Secondary Training Schools of Bihar and Orissa. Consequently, one Inspector was attached to the Secondary Training School at Cuttack[71].

Physical education continued to have a fair share of attention in all the Secondary Schools. It may be said that by 1936 the subject had become a part of the curriculum in all the well-organised institutions. Drill was taught in all classes of schools though not as efficiently as could be desired. Gymnastic exercises were practised in some schools, but they were not popular with the great bulk of the students. Cricket and football were gaining popularity in Secondary Schools situated in urban areas. Country games were also played in many school[72].

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Chapter Four

COLLEGIATE AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Ravenshaw College, Cuttack : 1868-1905

The promotion of collegiate education began in Orissa when Ravenshaw College was established in Cuttack in 1868. The Cuttack Zilla School was converted in January 18;8 into a collegiate school. In January 1875, T. E. Ravenshaw proposed to convert college department of the High School into a fullfledged college providing instruction upto the B.A. degree. There was hardly any doubt that Oriyas were exposed to much disadvantage in respect of collegiate education because of their distance from the Presidency College in Calcutta. Hence the college was opened in January 1876. The Director of Public Instruction remarked : "The Cuttack college properly equipped, will civilise Orissa, as the Presidency and other colleges have civilised Bengal, and as the Patna Collego is civilising Bihar"[1]

In 1878, Krushna Chandra Bhanj, the Maharaja of Mayurbhanj, made a donation of Rs. 20,000 to the college as a permanent endowment. At his request, the name of its was changed to Ravenshaw College, in commemoration of Ravenshaw's services as Commissioner of Orissa.

In 1881 an event marked an era in the educational history of the province. That year, the college which had hitherto been experimental was placed on a permanent basis. The munificient gift to the tune of Rs 20,000/- of the late Maharaja added to the bulk of the previous local contributions acted as a prop for making theinstitution permanent[2].

The Law Department was attached to the college in 1881. It prepared the students for pleadership examination. In 1891 M.A. class in English was opened. As most of the seats in M.A. (English) class were vacant in successive years from 1894 to 1900, it was closed in 1903.

There was no marked increase in the number of students in the college by 1905, the strength being 38 in 1882, 97 in 1900 and 75 in 1905. There were some major obstacles to any large enrolment of students. Firstly, there were few High English Schools in Orissa. Secondly, owing to the proximity of Midnapur, most of the successful candidates at the Entrance Examination from the district of Balasore used to join the Midnapur College. Thirdly, from the year 1896, Orissa was connected with Calcutta by Railways. The improved means of communication attracted some of the most promising students to study in Calcutta. Finally, the calls upon the college for the supply of educated young men for recruitment in the various departments of service were increasing consequently, many of them left off their studies[3].

Ravenshaw College, Cuttack : 1905-1936

In spite of the various barriers mentioned above, the period under review saw continued increase in the number of students at the Ravenshaw College. That indicated the growing popularity of English education in Orissa. Two incentives to English education imparted in the college were the increased prospects of lucrative employment, and the chances of improving social standing by means of a University degree.

There were 158 students on the rolls of the college in 1907. The staff of the college consisted of a Principal and seven Professors. No officer of the Indian Education service was employed at the college. The total cost of the college during 1906-07 was Rs. 31,914, the cost to Government being Rs. 23,766[4].

Till 1912 Science was taught in this college upto the Intermediate standard. The branches of Science taught upto this stage were Physics, Chemistry and Botany. The factor that delayed the opening of degree course in Science was the unfavourable report of the commission for the inspection of Mafassial colleges appointed in 1902. The commission

inspected the Ravenshaw College in 1903 and found that the provision for the teaching of Science was defective. Besides, they were of opinion that a considerable outlay would be necessary in order to provide properly constructed laboratories, apparatus for practical work and demonstrators for practical classes. So they recommended that the college should discard Science teaching altogether or be content themselves with teaching one or two Science subjects upto the Intermediate standard[5].

But in course of time, there arose a strong demand for provision of B.Sc. course and teaching of some more subjects at the B.A. stage. The range of affiliation had to be extended considerably in 1912. The new subjects were Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics up to the B.Sc. pass standard, Political Economy and Political Philosophy upto the B.A pass standard, and History and Persian upto B.A. (Hons.) standard.

At the same time, staff of the Ravenshaw College had been sizeably increased to enable them to cope with the additional work. The sanctioned staff on 1 April 1912 consisted of one Principal in the Indian Education Service, eight professors in the provincial Educational Service, five lecturers and four demonstrators in the subordinate educational service. During the year 1913, an additional professor of Economics was appointed in the Indian Educational service, an additional Professor of History in the provincial educational service and a lecturer in English in the sub-ordinate Educational Service[6].

Even after the opening of B.Sc. (Pass) Course, it was found that better Science students usually left the college after passing the Intermediate standard and joined in an institution where the Honours course was taught. By 1917, the public opinion in Orissa began to demand opening of B.Sc. (Hons.) and M.A. classes.

Meanwhile, it was observed that a number of students used to leave the college every year before the end of the session. The number of such cases during the year 1917 was

no less then 72. The reasons assigned to this were as follows : Many of them could not afford the cost of education at the college while others found themselves unable to proceed with college course owing to deficiency in English. It was pointed out that the admission of such students led to an unfortunate waste of time and energy of the members of the staff as well as of the students themselves.

The number on the roll at the Ravenshaw College rose to 280 in 1912 and 375 in 1915. With numerical increase and affiliation of new subjects, already mentioned, the need of the extension of building of the college was keenly felt. The Ravenshaw Collegiate School was removed from the control of the Principal in 1915. It was moved to a rented house and later to a building formerly used as the civil court. The removal of the collegiate school had greatly increased the accommodation available. This had also been improved by transferring the survey school from a building in the college compound to a rented house.

There was however, litttle room for further expansion of the college building in the present site. It was not possible to obtain sufficient ground in the immediate neighbourhood except at a heavy cost of acquisition and expropriation. The Director of Public Instruction was of the opinion that, if the college was to develop into a residential institution, either large blocks of bazar and dwelling houses must be acquired at great expense, or the college should be removed to another site.

The Government had no doubt that the present site was too cramped for a college. In 1916, a new site of 84½ acres had been acquired on which a complete set of new buildings was to be erected at a cost of approximately ten lakhs of rupees. It was decided that, when this would be completed the old buildings were to be handed over to collegiate school[7].

The new buildings of the Ravenshaw College were opened by His Excellency the Governor on 5 April 1921. A munificent donation of Rs. one lakh from the Maharaja of

Mayurbhanj enabled the college to be fitted with electricity and to be equipped with Honours in some Science subjects.

In July 1921, Ravenshaw College was moved to new buildings at Chauliaganj, where, besides library and teaching accommodation, quarters had been provided for 18 members of the staff and hostels for 416 resident students. The cost exclusive of fittings was approximately Rs. 11 lakhs.

In these fine new buildings with so many of the staff and students in residence, the college bore the promise of a very bright future. The time must indeed be not far distant when the college would develop into a University of its own. Some such development was desirable not only because of differences of language, custom and tradition between Orissa and Bihar, but also because of the distance between Cuttack and Patna.

Meanwhile, apart from its erection of new buildings, the college was making progress in the direction of becoming self-contained. In 1920, it had been granted affiliation in Mathematics to the Honours standard. Proposals for affiliation in Botany to the Degree standard and post-graduate classes in English had been approved in 1921. Affiliation in Chemistry and Physics upto the Honours was the next step and depended mainly on the acquisition of an electric plant.

In 1922, the teaching staff in the Ravenshaw College had been strenthened once again. The sanctioned teaching staff in 1917 consisted of 27 members. In 1922 additional posts had been created in Mathematics, Logic, Physics and Chemistry, making the total 31. Of them, the sanctioned number of posts in the Indian Educational Service was 13, of which 2 were held by the Europeans and 9 by Indians while the other 2 were filled on a temporary basis only. Two of the Indian members of the Indian Education Service were ex-students of the college.

The direct expenditure of the college rose from Rs. 1,13,796 in 1917 to Rs. 1,55,987 in 1922, owing to the additions to the staff already mentioned and to the revision of the pay of the different services.

One of the features of the new college buildings was the library provided by the generosity of the Raja of Kanika. This graceful building provided a reading room and ample space for many more books than the 12000 which the college now possessed. In recognition of the donation of Rs. 50,000 for the libray building by the Raja of Kanika, Government had sanctioned a grant of Rs. 25,000 for the purchase of books, so that in another year or two, the college should have a very fine library indeed[8].

The Patna University Act after receiving the assent of the governor-general came into force on 1 October 1917. Thus, the Patna University came into being and J. G. Jennings was appointed the first Vice-Chancellor by the Government of Bihar and Orissa. Henceforth, the Patna University became the affiliating and examining body of the Ravenshaw College in place of Calcutta University.

The establishment of the University created immediate necessity for increasing the previously limited facilities for Post-graduate studies. A scheme for establishing M.A. and M.Sc. teaching in certain subjects at the Patna University was considered and finally approved by the Senate in March 1919. The refusal by the Government of India, under the altered conditions due to the Government of India Act of 1919, to make a substantial grant to the Local Government for the establishment of a Teaching University, led to the abandonment of plan for opening teaching departments in the Patna University.

Following this, the Senate approved modifications in the regulations regarding the conduct of Higher Degree teaching, which had become desirable. Consequently, some post-graduate classes were definitely added to Patna College and M.A. teaching in English was added to the Ravenshaw College, Cuttack in 1922 with the help of the Maharani Sabita Lady Parbati Devi Sonpur State Trust Fund[9].

In 1922, the athletic club was benefitted by visits to the college paid by the Hon'ble Ministers, both of whom

generously provided funds for the construction of cement Tennis Courts.

There had been no serious breaches of discipline in the first two decades of 20th century. The Principal, Ravenshaw College observed : "The discipline was mainly of the passive kind, instances of active co-operation with the authorities for the good of the college being but rare. The most noticeable feature is the apparent lack, on the part of the majority of the students, of that respect for seniority and constituted authority which is so prominent in educational institutions in Europe".[10]

In 1921, non-cooperation movement was launched in Orissa. Many students of Ravenshaw College participated in it. The disciplinary action against some of them was taken by the authorities of the college.[11]

A less satisfactory feature was noticeable. There was decline in the number of students which was 475 in 1917 and 368 in 1921. This was attributed partly to a succession of poor harvests in North Orissa and partly to non-cooperation movement. The effect of the latter had in the main been indirect and had shown itself chiefly through a reduction in the number of admissions to the first year class. This was 109 in 1921, whereas for the previous five years, the average was 200. But a decrease in the number of Mahammedan students and the lessening popularity of Sanskrit as a subject of study resulted in the abolition of the posts of a Professor of Persian and a lecturer in Sanskrit in 1922.[12]

By 1922, the facilities for higher education in the Ravenshaw College were much improved. But this was largely due to local endowments. The Maharaja of Mayurbhanj donated a lakh of rupees to enable Ravenshaw College to be fitted with electricity and to be equipped for honours work in Science. An excellent library had been built with a donation of a half lakh given by Raja Rajendra Narayan Bhanja Deo of Kanika, while a trust fund of government securities of the face value of the same amount in aid of Post-

graduate teaching in English had been created by Maharani Sabita Lady Parbati Devi of Sonpur State. In their Resolution dated 8 October 1923, the Minister of Education highly appreciated the philanthropy of these persons and expressed the opinion : "In view of the urgent claims of primary education, sanitation and medical relief, Government can not find large sum to affiliate the external colleges in various subjects unless local liberality will bear at least part of the cost. The great advances which have been made in Europe and America in higher teaching and research are almost wholly due to private endowments, and unless the wealthy members of the community of Bihar and Orissa will come forward in increasing numbers with endowments and bequests, the province can never afford to provide the facilities which are so much desired[13].

The educated citizens of Cuttack town seemed to be disinterested in the speeches delivered at the premises of Ravenshaw College. The Principal Ravenshaw College noted with much dissatisfaction that the popular science lectures given by members of the staff continued to meet with no good response from the public. In December 1925, four general lectures open to the public were given on saturday evenings. But few of the public attended, the greater portion of the audience being of the staff and students[14].

The number of stdents on the rolls rose to 486 in 1924, including the 19 M.A. students. In 1924, the students living in hostels rose to 286. The warden was of opinion that, this increase was due to the disappearance of the impression that hostel life was expensive. Much use was made of the hostel common rooms, which were maintained by means of voluntary subscriptions. Evening lectures has been delivered, a trilingual Manuscript Magazine had been published and a voluntary corps to nurse the sick had been organised.

In 1925, an experiment in common messing in the hostels was tried. A system of mess caution money was adopted in order to enable students, who might be short of money

towards the end of the month, to meet their messing bills[16].

Although the system of Common Messing which was generally introduced in the two Hindu Hostels at the beginning of the session, 1927-28, had aroused criticism, mostly unjustifiable, it had some distinct advantages. Firstly, all students now got two meals a day for the whole month instead of (as happened in some cases) going short towards the end of the month. Secondly, complaints of unsettled mess bills were no longer received. Further, the cost being now collected on a fixed date, students had less temptation to waste their money. The college co-operative society reported a great decrease in the sale of fancy goods such as scented soap and hair oil. Hence, it was decided that the system of common Messing would be continued for the present but modified so as to remove its more evident defects. It had entailed very considerable extra work, but this had been performed ungrudgingly by the hostel authorities[17].

The number of students on rolls rose to 486 in 1926 but the number of students in the post-graduate classes in English fell suddenly. In March 1926 there wss only one student in the 6th year class and five in the 5th year class, compared with 5 and 9 in March 1925 and 14 and 5 in March 1924. Besides, the majority of the students were said to be wanting in earnestness to attend the classes only until they secured an appointment[18].

Meanwhile, the system of supplementary examination had become a subject of discussion. In 1923, the Principal, Ravenshaw College, criticised this on the ground that it complicated college work, broke up the long vacation, and caused many weak students to enter college late[19]. In 1928, he once again pointed out the disturbing effect of the Matriculation Supplementary examination, which was bringing into colleges, some weeks after the session had begun, large number of fresh candidates, many of whom were definitely inferior in calibre to those who had joined at the beginning

of the session. The Principal, Patna College, expressed the same view on this issue[20].

This problem was tackled by the University in the year 1929-30. It was decided to restrict the scope of the supplementary examination. Accordingly, in future only the following classes of students were to be admitted to this examination : (1) Candidates who were sent up for the annual examination, but for some sufficient causes were unable to appear, (2) Candidates who failed at the annual examination by reason of failing in the aggregate only, (3) Candidates who failed at the annual examination in one subject only, (4) Candidates who failed in two subjects only at the annual examination but passed in the aggregate.

The first set of supplementary examinations under the new regulations was held in June 1930. It was hoped to be a change in the right direction to prove successful[21].

There was an impression that the B.A. degree offered a better passport to the provincial executive service than the B.Sc. Naturally, many studens were eager to study B A. course after passing the I.Sc. Examination. One University regulation sanctioned in 1925 provided that after passing the I.Sc. examination, they could take up the B.A. course with Mathematics and Economics as their optional subjects. It was found that several I.Sc. students took advantage of this recently sanctioned university regulation.

The B.A. Honours classes continued to remain small. Only 12 and 14 Honours students appeared at the B.A. examination of 1924 and of 1925 respectively. It was considered a disappointing response to the facilities offered. In 1926, the college had been admitted to the Honours standard in Economics[22].

The B.Sc. Honours classes always remained very small. Only 4 and 3 students appeared at B.Sc. examination of 1924 and 1925 respectively. It was interpreted by some as having little need for Honours in Science. But actually the B.Sc. course did not attract more students because of two reasons.

Firstly, there was no Honours in Physics and Chemistry. Secondly, there was the impression that the B.A. degree is more helpful in getting jobs in the provincial administrative service than the B Sc.[23]

Several resolutions on educational matters were discussed in the August Session of the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council in 1928. One of these recommended government to take steps to equip the Ravenshaw College for Post-Graduate teaching in all Arts subjects and for Honours teaching at the B.Sc. stage[24].

During the year, 1929-30, Government accorded sanction to the experimental opening of Honours classes in Physics, Chemistry and Botany at the Ravenshaw College, Cuttack with effect from July, 1930[25].

In October 1929, Government issued a resolution on the subject of the medical inspection of school children. According to this, orders were issued to the effect that all the students of the Ravenshaw College should be medically examined in their first, third and fifth years. A Sub-Assistant Surgeon was appointed as the College Medical Officer for the purpose. In 1933, a wholetime Assistant Surgeon was employed in place of a Sub-Assistant Surgeon as the College Medical Officer. This had proved a success[26].

During the five years, 1927-1932, the cost of the college had risen roughly by Rs. 2,31,000 of which Rs. 2,00,000 came from provincial revenues and Rs. 31,000 from fees. The fees chardged were as follows: (a) in I.A. classes Rs. 6 a month, (b) in I.Sc. classes Rs. 7 a month, (c) in B.A. classes Rs. 7 a month, (d) in B.Sc. classes Rs. 8 a month, (e) in M.A. classes and in M.Sc. classes in Mathematics Rs. 10 a month, and in other M.Sc. classes Rs. 11.

In the then financial stringency, it seemed that either the growth in the cost of the colleges would have to be checked or the fees would have to be raised. In 1931-32, substantial efforts were made in the former direction. Posts were kept vacant, whenever this could be done without serious loss

of efficiency and the grants for contingent, expenditure of all kinds were severely curtailed[27].

A beginning had been made with co-education in Ravenshaw College in 1929-30. The number of girl students in this college was four in 1929-30 and six in 1930-31.

The college was affiliated in Oriya as a principal subject upto the Intermediate standard in July 1933. The experiment of teaching Honours in Physics, Chemistry and Botany with the help of four research scholars was started in 1930. It was decided in 1932-33, that it was to be continued for another two years[28].

The museum which started in the college in 1933 continued to grow and was housed in two rooms attached to Kanika Library. The promoters expected that this museum would provide the nucleus of a provincial museum when Orissa became a separate province[29].

The number of students rose to 571 (including four lady students) by 1936. Of course, the wastage owing to economic reasons or to educational unfitness, or to acceptance of offers of employment, continued.

The number of boarders rose to 259 in 1936 although the college hostels had accommodation for 318 boarders[30]. The two hostels offered excellent opportunities for the development of corporate life among students[31].

College discipline remained generally satisfactory. During the period, 1927-32, the prevailing political excitement made itself felt. There had been occasional excitement and attempts at picketing. But there had not been substantial interference with work. The Ravenshaw College suffered much less than the schools, partly no doubt because many of the senior students remembered the harm done to so many careers by the corresponding disturbances some years ago. It had become plain that neither the people of Orissa generally, nor the students themselves wished the work of the colleges and schools to be interrupted[32].

The old boys' association continued to function success-

fully and arranged a valuable programme of lectures in 1935.

The various college societies continued to function satisfactorily and several excursions were undertaken each year. The social activities of the college continued. An excellent magazine was published during every session and the cooperative society was doing good work. Arrangements had been made to give all the students drill for a short period twice a week[33]. In 1928 and 1934, students and members of the staff rendered considerable assistance in the flood relief operations in Cuttack and Balasore districts both in person and by means of subscription[34].

By 1936, the Ravenshaw College, Cuttack was the solitary governmental institution in Orissa to impart purely collegiate education to men and women. The sad state of affairs was mainly due to the fact that although the government depended mainly on private enterprise for the expansion of higher education, it did not give required response in Orissa. The policy pursued by the Government of Bihar and Orissa in the sphere of higher education was clear from the resolution No. 6235-E dated 26 Nov. 1927. It ran : "It may not be out of place to emphasise the growing need for private generosity in the development and extension of this form of education. Existing colleges are continually pressing for additional teaching facilities. It was no longer possible for Government to finance such developments entirely from their own resources, nor would such a course be in the best interest of education since it was calculated to stifle and ultimately kill all private effort. A local demand for the extension of facilities for collegiate education should be backed by local financial support, and Government will always be ready to assist to the best of their ability a legitimate demand which receives such backing".[35]

The Ravenshaw was not yet a fully equipped institution, as all the subjects included in the curriculum of the Patna University were not taught in it. The institution had 595 students including 14 women students in 1936-37. It had

provision for Post-Graduate course in English only upto this time[36].

Law Classes attached to the Ravenshaw College

In the pleadership classes attached to the Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, there were 20 students in 1911-12, 23 students in 1915-16 and 30 students in 1916-17. The question of opening B.L. classes at Cuttack was under consideration. Meanwhile, six scholarships were granted annually to Oriya students who desired to join the Law College at Patna and Calcutta[37].

B.L. classes were opened at Cuttack in 1920 but did not prove a success for the time being the number being only 8 in 1922. It was hoped that with the opening of M.A. classes, the number would rise.

The pleadership classes at this centre has languished, the number being 6 in 1920 against 12 five years ago. The transfer of the classes from the college building to a centre three miles from the courts might be responsible for this. It was suggested that the classes were to be moved back to the old college site.

During the session, 1921-22, one teacher, paid by Government, managed both seats of classes. It was realised that from the next session, the three B.L. classes would fully occupy his time even if the number of students was small. Hence it was decided that the pleadership classes would be conducted by a lecturer remunerated by the fees[38].

However, after the opening of B.L. classes, the pleadership classes continued to be attended by very small number of students. Hence, these were closed in 1923.

The number of students in the B.L. classes attached to Ravenshaw College rose from 8 to 25 in 1922-23. There were at one time as many as 26 students in the 1st year class, and the classes had thus at last proved successful[39].

There was a large increase in the number of students reading in the B.L. classes, viz., 25 in 1922 to 56 in 1923. To

cope with extra, which was found too much for the single wholetime Professor of Law, a part-time lecturer on Rs. 200/- a month was appointed with effect from 9 July 1923[40].

The Law classes continued to expand. The number of students was 85 in March 1925. Thirteen of them were reading in M.A. classes. The total number of M.A. students was only 14[41].

The number of students attending the law classes decreased from 85 in March 1925 to 66 in March 1926. This was, no doubt, due to the reduction in the length of course from three years to two[42].

In 1927-28, the law classes were reported unsatisfactory, partly for the same reason, partly because of two other factors. In the first place, the low standard of the University law examinations did not exact much effort from students. In the second place, the practice of holding classes outside the ordinary college hours, resulted in somewhat perfunctory attendance[43].

The difficulty caused by the reduction of the length of the B.L. course from three years to two had been solved by the decision of 1931 that far those students who combined Law with a post-Graduate course in Arts or Science, the period of study should be three years[44].

The Law classes at Ravenshaw College had 51 students in 1936-37 The number of students who graduated in law did not exceed an average of sixteen during the last three years. Upto 1926, only law classes attached to the Ravenshaw College provided instruction in law[45].

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

The reorganisation of Cuttack Survey School

A long felt want for imparting instruction in survey was removed when a Survey School was established at Cuttack in 1876.

The double objects of the survey class were to train youths for the survey and to enable them to obtain appointments after quitting the school. Thirteen students joined it at first. The period under training was fixed for two years. The school was placed under the control of the Principal, Ravenshaw College. Although the complete curriculum of the school extended for two years, at the end of the first year, an examination was held on the results of which Amin's certificates were issued to successful candidates.

Almost all the successful candidates found employment as Amins. The school rapidly grew in popularity. At the end of 1891, 41 students were on its rolls.

On 31 March 1907, there were 99 students undergoing instruction in the school. Of them 61 were Oriyas and 38 non-Oriyas. Forty-three candidates appeared at the final or second year examinatiom held in 1906-07 and of them 37 were successful. Of them, 25 secured appointments on salaries ranging from Rs. 15 to Rs. 80 a month. Forty students appeared at the Final Survey examination of 1907-08. Of them 38 came out successful. All the passed candidates had been provided with appointments[46].

The Survey School at Cuttack did not yet teach Sub-overseer course. The school taught upto the Sub-overseer standard in the sense that students who passed the final examination were eligible for Sub-overseership in the Public Works Department. The curriculum included surveying, road-making, estimating and Mathematics, but not carpentry, smithery or science.

It was pointed out that the work of the Amin classes at this school was not satisfactory. Indeed, the survey and settlement departments preferred to train their own Amins rather than employ the passed students of these classes. The improvement of the classes deserved serious consideration[47].

In 1912, some steps were taken for the reorganisation of Cuttack Survey School. Firstly, the Amin's certificate given after one years' training was abolished and only a Surveyor's

certificate was to be given after the final survey standard examination at the end of the two years' course. Secondly, the course of Instruction at the Survey School was remodelled on the same line as the Surveyor's class at the Bihar School of Engineering. Moreover, some essential apparatus was purchased for the institute.

It was said that, henceforth there was no reason why at Cuttack "an inefficient type of Sub-overseers should be turned out as was done at present". But the school still remained under the supervision of the Principal of the Ravenshaw College and was held in a building in the college compound while the hostel was held in a hired house.[48]

In 1914, the roll number of that school had fallen from 78 to 49. This was partly, no doubt, owing to the abolition of the amin's certificate examination and partly because of the withdrawal of the concession granted in 1892 to passed students of the Survey School whereby they were declared qualified for appointments as 3rd grade Sub-overseers[49].

The fall in the number of students occasioned considerable anxiety in the minds of the some officers. It was questioned whether the survey school ought to be closed until such time it could be reopened as an engineering school. The proposal to close the school was deprecated by some other experienced officers, on the ground that it would cause much harm to the settlement and P.W.D. departments[50].

Meanwhile, a scheme was prepared to convert Cuttack Survey School into an engineering school with a view to turnout as many Sub overseers and Overseers as Orissa required. But no progress was made with the scheme for raising the status of the Cuttack Survey School, as it was decided to wait for the advice of the committee on Technical Education. At the time of the visit to Cuttack of His Excellency the Viceroy of India, the Raja of Athagarh generously promised to contribute Rs. 20,000 towards the scheme, should Government decide to proceed with it[51].

In the year 1915-16, the school was removed from a

building in the compound of Ravenshaw College to a hired house and was placed under the control of the Inspector of Schools instead of under that of the Principal of the Ravenshaw College.

The committee on Technical and Industrial Education strongly recommended for the raising of the status of the Cuttack Survey School into an Engineering School. In accordance with their suggestions, a fresh scheme had been prepared and submitted to the Government of India for sanction. Provision had been made, in the scheme, for Sub-overseer and artisan classes while Overseer classes would be added later on, if required. The estimated cost was Rs. 1,42,729 including Rs 8,529 recurring charges. Although the scheme was sanctioned by the Government of India, it could not be given immediate effect because of paucity of funds.[52]

The Angul Survey School

The Angul Survey School was established in 1902. It was specially intended for teaching surveying to the sons of Sarbarakars in the Government estates. It had 20 pupils in the year 190/. The total expenditure amounting to Rs. 420 per year was chiefly met from the District Primary Grant. The course of studies prescribed for this school was almost equivalent to that of the first year class of the Cuttack Survey School.

The school was supplied with all the requisite instruments and appliances in 1907, out of a special grant of Rs. 614 sanctioned by the Government. The total number of students passed during the five years from 1902 to 1907 was 38. Many of the passed students were now employed as Amins in connection with the present settlement of Angul[53].

By 1917 it appeared very successful, for its roll number rose from 20 in 1912 to 37 in 1917[54].

The Orissa School of Engineering

The Orissa School of Engineering was established at

Cuttack on 1 July 1923. By this means it was hoped to give Oriyas a chance to undergo technical training without leaving Orissa, which they were most reluctant to do. Jamshedpur was quite close to the borders of Orissa. Yet during the period, 1918-23, not a single satistactory Oriya candidate had come forward for admission to the Technical Institute there, and only two or three had applied[55].

The Orissa School of Engineering was opened with 28 students in the lower Sub-ordinate class and 20 in artisan class. Twenty-three of the former appeared at the 1st examination of whom 21 had been promoted to the second year class. The school presented its students for the first time for the Sub-overseers. examination in 1924, and 16 out of 19 who took the examination were passed.

As it was decided not to employ Sub-overseers in the Public Works Department, it was felt necessary to limit the number of candidates to be admitted into this school. Accordingly, only 35 students were taken in the 1st year class in 1925 against 42 last year[56].

The school presented its students for the second time for the Sub-overseer examination in 1926 and they did remarkably well. Out of 31, 25 passed the examination, 8 in the higher division securing 60 to 80 percent marks. This excellent result led the Government to consider the question of opening third year class in the school[57].

As the Orissa School of Engineering had taught upto the Sub-overseer stage only, any student wishing to qualify as an Overseer had to go to Patna for a third year of training. The Oriya students in general were reluctant to study in a far-away place. Taking this fact into consideration it was decided to teach the full course at Cuttack. Hence the third year class was opened in July 1926.

In 1927, the school presented its students for the first time for the subordinate engineering certificate, and they did very well. Of the 29 candidates who sat for the examination, 22 qualified, 7 being placed in the first division, 14

in the second and 1 in the third. For the Sub-overseers certificate, 35 candidates were sent up, and 26 of them were successful.

Artisan department attached to this school had proved successful all along. A large number of boys were being trained in carpentry, sanitary, painting and engine drivers' work. Artisan classes expanded quickly. The number of Artisans on the roll increased from 26 in 1923 to 75 in 1926.

In 1925, classes were opened in this institution for apprentices in mechanical engineering[58].

By 1927, it was found that the work accomplished in every department of the school was of a very high order. The artisan department was in a flourishing condition. The progress made by the students in the new mechanical apprentice classes was reported to be satisfactory. Further, the school had now been fitted with an electric installation and new hostel buildings, and provided additional accommodation which was urgently required. New workshops were in the process of construction[59].

In 1928 it was noticed that the artisan classes which were reported to be flourshing, had proved unable "to retain the boys, once they had attained a certain degree of efficiency".[60] Hence, artisan and mechanical apprentices classes were replaced by a single Diploma Course[61].

The number of new admissions to the Orissa School of Engineering for the session 1930-31, was 43, of which 35 were to the subordinate Engineering class and 10 to the Industrial Diploma Class[62].

During the period, 1927-1932, the Orissa School of Engineering suffered considerable dislocation in its normal growth. A permanent Principal had to be first suspended and then prosecuted for a series of serious irregularities and misappropriations carried on for a number of years. The prosecution resulted in his conviction and consequent dismissal from service. This unfortunate result and the attendant confusion seriously affected the working and

progress of the institute. A new Principal had, however been appointed.

In spite of this, the school had in this interval acquired the first school workshop in the province of Bihar and Orissa and was also well off as regards school buildings and hostels[63]. It continued to attract plenty of students. The total numerical strength of the school was 116 in 1936.

In 1936-37, elementary and Cadastral Survey Classes were added to the courses of study for the subordinate Civil Engineering classes. To add to its utility, the institution had already got an Industrial Diploma class. The appointment of a teacher in Machine drawing and of two instructors, one for the Electric Shop and another for the Motor Shop, were useful additions to the staff of the school[64].

The Orissa School of Engineering was by for the most important technical institution in the whole of Orissa. It mainly trained students in the diploma course of Civil Engineering. The result of the examination continued to be satisfactory. The discipline of the students remained good. It was gratifying to record that most of the successful candidates in both sections of this school were provided with suitable employments either under Government or under local bodies. By 1936 the School had turned out 160 subordinate engineers, all of whom were employed. However, Orissa had no engineering college of its own by 1936.

Commercial Schools

The commercial school attached to the Cuttack Training School was under the management of Government and taught type-writing, drafting, shorthand and book-keeping. The total number of students on the roll was 33 in 1936. There were two teachers on the staff of the school. The final examination on the different subjects was entrusted to external examiners. It continued to serve the useful purpose in supplying qualified men for Government ministerial service.

There were two unrecognised commercial institutions at

Cuttack with an enrolment of 20 pupils in 1936. They imparted instruction mainly in short-hand and type-writing.

However, the commercial school attached to the Cuttack Training School was the only institution maintained by the Government. It continued to cater to the needs of young men for the different ministerial posts in Orissa[65].

Industrial Schools

In 1905, there were 3 industrial schools in the Balasore district, 2 aided and 1 unaided, attended by 116 pupils. Weaving, carpentry and blacksmith's work were taught in them. The Alalpur Industrial School in Balasore District was an instance of spontaneous industrial training. Its founder was an Oriya gentleman with a practical turn of mind, who had raised the standard of craftsmanship in his neighbourhood.

The Balasore Industrial School, also known as Balasore Technical School, was managed by the American Christian Mission. It was equipped with a very few and modern set of wood-working machinery which was, of course, power-driven[66]. It continued to receive the usual monthly grant of Rs. 100 from the District Board. This school was a sound institution managed on practical lines and boys trained in it found a ready employment on good pay. The small machines in the workshop were all worked by electricity and the school represented an investment of over Rs. 60,000 in 1920[67].

During the period, 1927-1932, it had much improved the practical and theoretical work. The most notable new activity had been the boring of numerous small tubewells and their equipments with windmills at a very low cost. It was said that the Balasore Industrial School was 'the most successful in the province of Bihar and Orissa—bridging the great gap between the costliness of the modern methods and general poverty of the people"[68].

Till the end of the period under review, Balasore Technical School continued to train boys in wood and metal work, and motor-repairing. It ranked second among the technical institutions of Orissa being next to the Orissa School of Engineering.

Two weaving schools were established in two important centres of weaving, viz., Cuttack and Sambalpur in accordance with a scheme sanctioned by the Secretary of state in 1907.

The school at Sambalpur was started in 1909 on an experimental basis with the object of providing better training in the art of weaving for a class of professional weavers known as Gandas, who were chiefly responsible for the offences against property in the Sambalpur District. The school was placed on a permanent basis in 1912.

The Cuttack weaving school was established in 1911. It was housed in buildings provided by the District Board. Twenty stipends at the rate of Rs. 6/- a month had been granted for each of the two schools. In Sambalpur, the whole amount was given by the Government, whereas in Cuttack Rs. 4/- was contributed by the Government and Rs. 2/- by the District Board. The following subjects were variously taught in these schools : practical weaving, freehand drawing, design, fabric structure, dyeing preparation of yarn, and yarn calculation.

The control of the schools was tranferred from the Director of Public Instruction to the Registrar of Co-operative Societies in September, 1915.

The services of Hoogewerf, Principal of the Serampur Weaving Institute, were requisitioned and he was sent on deputation to Orissa for a short period. Following his report, an important change was introduced in the working of the schools. The period of instruction which was hitherto six months had now been extended to one year.

In 1913, a scheme had been introduced by which Government supplied the students with yarn and the sale proceeds of the cloth woven by them were credited to Government.

The profits were devoted to the purchase of books to be given to those who had completed their course. The scheme, however, proved a failure. On the recommendation of the Registrar, Government sanctioned a reversion to the old rules under which the weavers provided their own yarn and sold white cloths they made.

It may be mentioned here that fancy weaving of several descriptions used to be taught in these schools. But it was found by experience that there was no sufficient demand for the materials turned out, and it was not profitable for the weavers to turn out silk fancy cloth in large quantities. The Registrar, therefore, directed that attention should be chiefly directed towards teaching the students to weave such clothes as could command a ready sale.

The management of the schools rested with a local committee in each case. The committee in Sambalpur was presided over by the Deputy Commissioner. The Cuttack committee was presided over by the District Magistrate of Cuttack.

In 1916, the Government had sanctioned an increase in the pay of the teachers from Rs. $50\text{-}\frac{10}{3}\text{-}120$ to Rs. $60\text{-}\frac{10}{3}\text{-}160$.

The Registrar was fully confident that these changes would result in a marked improvement both as regards the training of the students and the general management of the schools.

During the period, 1912-17, altogether 224 students passed out of these schools. Under the scheme, books were presented to those who completed their course of training. The 181 books had in all been distributed[69].

But Registrar was in doubt as to how many of the looms distributed were in actual use in the villages or what influence these students extended in villages in making the use of the fly-shuttle looms more popular. It was becoming more and more evident that the stationary schools by themselves would not achieve their object in popularising the use of fly-shuttle looms. To compass this end in view, the system of a peripatetic agency in place of these stationary schools was con-

sidered more suitable. Hence, the weaving schools at Cuttack and Sambalpur were closed on 31 January, 1920[70].

The Industrial Section of the Mission Girls' School at Cuttack was opened in 1920. It was called 'Shelter'. It trained girls in basket making, weaving, spinning, sewing and embroidery work. In 1930, it was reported to have made satisfactory progress. But the number of students in the Shelter Industrial School began to diminish gradually.

In addition, by 1936 the following industrial schools were established in different parts of Orissa which provided instruction in certain useful crafts like weaving, tailoring, toy-making, basket-making, wood and metal work and like. They were: (1) The Madhusudan Village, Industries Institute at Cuttack, (2) The Poor Industry Cottage at Cuttack, (3) Basanta Kumari Bidhaba Asram at Puri, (4) Phulbani Industrial School, (5) Angul Weaving School, (6) Weaving School under the Salvation Army at Angul and (7) Kujang Industrial School[71].

Except the Phulbani Industrial School and the Angul Weaving School, all the industrial schools of Orissa were private institutions which received grants-in-aid from the department. In 1936, the number of pupils on the rolls in these schools was 160 and the expenditure met from Government funds was Rs. 16,581.

Rai Bahadur, B. C. Patnaik was the founder of the Orissa Poor Industry Cottage. It chiefly aimed at training students in different handi-crafts, using raw-materials available locally. The number of students in this institute was 25 in 1936. It had got the following sections: (1) Weaving Sections, (2) Baskets, can and mat section, (3) Toy section, (4) Eri Section, (5) Tailoring Sections, (6) Women Section. In 1936-37, fourteen students appeared in the final examination in different branches and all came out successful.

In 1935, the institution made research into the process of burning bricks and the experiments made in this connection proved successful.

Basanta Kumari Bidhaba Ashram was meant solely for women. It was managed by the Soraj Nalini Association of Calcutta, and was primarily a boarding school for training them in handicrafts so that they could make a decent living. Girls were also allowed to attend the school as day scholars. There were 43 students on the roll on 31 March 1936, of whom five passed the final examination. Apart from giving grant-in-aid, the Government awarded stipends to 20 Oriya widows studying in the Ashram[72].

In 1936-37, a new industrial institution called "The Madhusudan Village Industries Institute' was started at Cuttack, by a private association, with the financial aid of Rs. 23,620/- from Government, which undertook to maintain it for the first five years. There were altogether eight sections in the Institute, detailed as follows : (1) Cotton and Eri-spinning, (2) Cotton, Wool or Silk weaving, (3) Toy making, (4) Cane and Wood work, (5) Paper-making, (6) Oil pressing, (7) Soap making, (8) Dyeing and Printing. The courses of study of each section covered a period of one year. The session began in January and ended in December every year.

One hundred students were admitted to the different sections of the Institution in 1937-38. Among the students admitted, there were stipendaries and non-stipendaries. All the 73 students, who sat for the examination, came out successful, and had so far found employment under the All-India Village Industries Association, the All India Spinners' Association and in some princely states.

As the number of students in the Madhusudan Village Industries began to diminish gradually, it abolished the training classes and worked as a commercial concern from 1946-47.

Besides these industrial schools, there were craft schools opened with a view to enabling the villagers to pursue useful avocations during the off seasons. The craft schools aimed at imparting training in such subjects as jute weaving, nalia, basket-making, cane work, bamboo work and eri industry

etc. for which raw materials were available in the villages, Four such schools were opened in the district of Cuttack in 1936 at the initiative of some public spirited persons[73].

Cuttack Medical School

The Cuttack Medical School was opened on 15 February 1876. It was fairly started with 38 students. Under the supervision of Dr. Stewart, the Principal, it made a promising commencement.

By 1905, the expectations of the original founders were fulfilled. In 1905 it registered 130 pupils including 6 females. It not only supplied doctors to the several hospitals and dispensaries in Orissa, but also trained efficient nurses. Thus the foundations of the future medical college were laid.

During the period under review, Orissa had got no medical college. The Orissa Medical School, Cuttack was the only institution in Orissa for imparting medical education on the western system. It provided a four year course of study.

During the period, 1905-36, several steps were taken to develop it. A new Chemical Laboratory had been opened and much additional equipment for practical instruction in all departments had been procured. A special department had been set apart in the hospitals for a clinical laboratory and furnished with microps and other apparatus by which the students could be taught latest methods of clinical diognosis[74]. Several improvements had been made in regard to the buildings. The improvement of the teaching staff was effected in accordance with a scheme which received the sanction of the secretary of State in July 1920[75]. The arrangements for teaching had again been reorganised and brought up to a higher level in 1934[76].

The number of students on the roll at the end of the year, 1930-31 was 164 including 11 lady students. There were 203 students on its roll in 1936-37, of whom 183 were males and 20 females.

The examination of the Cuttack Medical School was conducted by the Bihar and Orissa Medical Examination Board from the year 1913. 22, 15 and 28 students passed the Final examination of the Bihar and Orissa Medical Examination Board in 1925, 1925 and 1933 respectively.

The Matriculation examination of the Patna University or any equivalent examination of any other university had hitherto been the minimum standard fixed for students seeking admission into the Orissa Medical School. But with a view to increasing the efficiency of the institution, the standard had been raised in 1936 to the passing of the I.A. or I.Sc. examination, failing to the first division in the Matriculation or S.L.C. examination.

There was ample arrangements at this school for games. The students took active interest in games, and their conduct was, on the whole, satisfactory. Of course, one unfortunate incident occurred in the school in 1927. Two-third of the students were expelled and rasticated for one year, using unfair means at the sessional examinations. The students of this institute were not reported to have taken part in the political agitation[77].

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Chapter Five

EDUCATION FOR THE GIRLS, BACKWARD CLASSES AND MUSLIMS

Education for the Girls by the year 1905

By 1905, the progress of female education had been extremely unsatisfactory. Almost all the girls attending the different classes of schools were in the primary stage of instruction. The total number of primary schools for girls was 259. In addition to 6894 girls in girls' primary schools, then were 9,009 girls in boys' primary schools. In 1905 there were four aided Middle English Schools for girls under the management of American Baptist Missionaries. There had never been any high school for girls in Orissa by 1905. Of the 16127 female pupils only 224 were in the secondary stage this year[1].

Several factors retarded the progress of female education. A great portion of the people were conservative. They did not like that the girls should go out and come into contact with boys, teachers or any other residents. Similarly, the education of their female children was a matter of great indifference to a large portion of parents and guardians. They usually did not take the same amount of care and interest in the education of their female wards as they did in that of boys. Besides, the system of early marriages presented an almost insurmountable barrier to education beyond the primary stages. Finally, the scarcity of educated female teachers and want of adequate state aid and aid from other public funds hindered the smooth progress of female education[2].

Primary Education for the Girls : 1905-1936

The co-education was very popular in Orissa. It was believed that the increase of girl students during the period from 1858 to 1905 was mainly due to the provision for co-

education in most of the primary schols for boys. During the period, 1902-1907, there were more girls in primary boys' schools than in primary girls' schools. Hornell, the Director of Public Instruction was of opinion that it should be encouraged by every possible means as it was impossible to establish a girls' school in every village.

During the quinquennium, 1902-07, eight Model Primary Schools for girls were opened in Orissa. Each of the four districts of Orissa got two such schools. The model schools were intended to set examples for the aided schools in respect of teaching, curriculum and buildings etc. Experience showed that an ordinary model school with a male teacher was generally no better than an aided school. Hence, steps were taken gradually to replace the male teachers by female teachers in the model schools.

There was no denying the fact that the chief difficulty with which female education had to contend was the scarcity of qualified teachers. In order to meet the deficiency of female teachers, three training schools for mistresses were opened, one in Cuttack and two in Balasore by the Christian missionaries during the period, 1902-07. Of the training schools under missionary management in Orissa, the training school at Cuttack proved to be most successful. But each of them had very small number of pupils[3]

In order to attract qualified women to join as teachers, in 1912 the minimum stipend for an untrained teacher and a trained teacher in a girls' school was fixed at Rs. 9/- and Rs. 12/- respectively, substantially higher figures than given to such teachers in boys' schools. In spite of this remedial measure, the crying want of female teachers could not be removed.

However, there was an increasing demand for literacy among the girls. This was evident from the fact that in all the districts except Sambalpur, the education of girls advanced at a fairly satisfactory rate as revealed in the following table :

	Number of Girls' Schools		Number of Girls at Schools	
	1912	1917	1912	1917
Cuttack	103	135	8,732	17,121
Balasore	149	157	6,496	9,432
Angul	19	22	2,465	1,996
Puri	50	127	3,251	6,135
Sambalpur	8	8	2,991	2,304

There were signs that the great demand for the education of girls was stimulated by the Womens' Associations. Their efforts were concentrated mainly on the promotion of female education. Public attention was beginning to be drawn to the vital necessity of the education of the girls especially by the Women Association at Cuttack and Mahilabandhu Samiti at Puri.

The increase in the number of girls' schools and students during the period, 1912-17, seemed to indicate that the people were awakening to an appreciation of the benefits of education for their girls. Despite this, the problems of securing better attendance and keeping the girls at school until the end of Lower Primary stage at least were still the main ones. As pointed out by the Director of Public Instruction, these problems could be solved, (1) by securing trained female teachers; (2) by making primary school buildings and grounds more private and secluded; and (3) by giving all girls in the primary standards small stipends monthly. He said that unless the steps were taken in these three directions, no real progress towards the removal of illiteracy among the females was possible. The payment of stipends to girls was, in his opinion, urgently necessary at any rate for keeping the girls at school till the end of the lower primary course. For, the girls' services were in demand at home for home-work as soon as they ceased to be infants[4].

The Female Education Committee of 1914 suggested to government. Some measures to be adopted for the expansion

of primary education for girls. Firstly, the Female Education Committee did not wish to discourage co-education, but considered that if funds permitted, a separate girls' school should be established whenever the number of girls in a boys' school reached 20. Secondly, they laid stress on the fact that the appointment of male teachers in the girls' schools should be avoided as far as practicable. Thirdly, they thought that the quarter of the total number of Lower Primary Scholarships should be reserved for girls together with a certain number of Upper Primary Scholarships in districts where meritorious candidates were likely to be forthcoming. Fourthly, they wished to see survey made of the places where training classes of the different grades could be established with a reasonable prospect of success. Fifthly, they considered that a considerable increase was necessary in the staff of Inspectress and Assistant Inspectress. Finally, they prepared a draft curriculum for the use of Girls' Primary Schools. An important feature of the new curriculum was the provision for the study of such subjects, as needle work, cooking and first aid.

All these recommendations of the Female Education Committee were accepted by the government and were acted upon in due course.

In 1919 a temporary training class for Hindu Women was opened at Cuttack. This had proved successful[5]. In 1925 some steps were taken to improve it. In future it would have two Assistant Mistresses instead of one. Their pay was also enhanced.

In 1926, the Female Inspecting Agency was strengthened. One Deputy Inspectress was appointed to take the charge of Female Education in Orissa. An Assistant Inspectress was provided for each district. As a result of these changes, the inspecting staff were in a position to pay greater individual attention to the female education.

In order to overcome the difficulty of obtaining trained teachers for government girls' schools, a special scale of pay

was sanctioned in 1927 for trained women matriculates in the Vernacular Teachers' Service[6].

Auxilliary committee on eduation of the Indian Statutory Commission deplored that educational progress in case of women had been highly unsatisfactory. In March 1930 government of Bihar and Orissa issued a resolution laying stress on the increasing facilities for co-education for the increase of literacy among the girls.

Larger number of girls received education in boys' schools than in girls' schools. Experience showed that girls were better taught in mixed schools at less expenditure. Besides, considering the paucity of female teachers, and financial stringency of the province, the government was convinced of the advantages of co-education at best at the lower primary stage. The Primary Education Committe of 1931 suggested that co-education at primary stage should be encouraged. Hence the government followed the policy of avoiding the opening of separate girls' primary schools as far as practicable[7].

In 1936 the number of primary schools for girls was 380. These institution had 12,280 girls under instruction. The number of girls attending boys' schools was 12,319. There were two training institutions for women viz., the Hindu Women's Institute at Cuttack and the training school at Cuttack which was managed by the Baptist Missionary Society with substantial aid from government. In these institutions 45 mistresses were under training in 1936[8].

Secondary Edncation for the Girls : 1905-1936

The Government was almost completely indifferent towards the opening of secondary schools for the girls of Orissa. The Female Education Committee of 1914 did not lay any stress on this vital issue. As a result, the secondary education for the girls of Orissa was in its infancy in 1936. There was only one High School at Cuttack, three Middle

English Schools at Cuttack, Puri and Sambalpur, and five Middle Vernacular Schools for girls[9].

The Girls' High School at Cuttack was opened 1906 by Mrs Reba Roy. The school was a very promising institution. The enterprising and philanthropic spirit shown by the lady founder deserved praise. At the outset, the higher section of the school consisted of two classes corresponding to the 4th and 3rd class of a High English School. Subsequently, the institution became a full-fledged High School and was named as Ravenshaw Girls' School. This continued to be the only High School for girls till the end of the period under review[10].

The control of the Ravenshaw Girls' School was assumed by the Government with effect from 1 March, 1913. The former school committee undertook to place at disposal of Government the old school building and the property of the value of some Rs. 10,000 in all. An unusually large committee was formed with the purpose of enlisting popular sympathy with the school. After the transfer of the school to Government, it was divided into two sections, a senior section or high school proper, and a junior section consisting of the primary and infant classes. A lady Principal on a salary of Rs. 400-20-600 had been placed in charge. She was assisted by seven mistresses for the senior section of whom one was in the provincial Educational Service, one on Rs. 120-3-150, two each on Rs. 100/-, one on Rs. 45/-, one on Rs. 35/- and one on Rs. 30/-. The Junior Section was in charge of a head teacher on Rs. 100-2-120/- and 6 assistants each on salary of Rs. 30/-. It was hoped that when new school and hostel buildings would be provided in the near future, a successful future would be assured for the school[11].

The Ravenshaw Girls' School had 45 pupils in the High School classes and 112 in the Middle and Primary Classes on 31 March 1917. In January 1917 it was moved to a building acquired for the purpose by the Government. The new building admirably adapted for the school. The

playground was large and the children thoroughly appreciated the space[12].

In 1919 a hostel and Principal's quarters were built for the Ravenshaw Girls' High School. The cookery class, which was opened here in 1920, proved to be very popular[13].

Music and domestic scheme were taught in the Ravenshaw Girls' High School as subjects for the matriculation examination from 1933-34[14].

Collegiate education for the girls : 1905-1936

The Female Education Committee of 1914 made following recommendations regarding collegiate education of the girls. Intermediate classes should be opened in connection with the Girls' High School at Cuttack. If the number of girls rose to 10, the question of seeking applications to the Intermediate standard should be considered. If it rose to 29, the establishment of a separate college should be taken up[15].

During the year 1915-16, a commencement was made in Orissa with the collegiate education of women when I.A. classes were opened in connection with the Ravenshaw Girls' School at Cuttack. The subjects taught were English, Logic, History, Sanskrit and the vernacular. The number of pupils was 8 in 1916-17 and 2 girls were sent up for the Intermediate Examination, of whom one passed[16]. The number of girls attending the Intermediate classes in arts at the Ravenshaw Girls' School continued to increase. By 1922 the number rose to 22.

These classes could not be placed on a permanent footing owing to the expense involved for a long time. Consequently, the teachers were discontented and one of them was likely to resign. In the opinion of Lady Principal, contented work could scarcely be expected from teachers who were kept on a temporary footing for so long as seven years. Some persons of influence suggested that it was better to close the collegiate classes rather than to keep it in a fluid and uncertain condition indefinitely. The D.P.I. wrote that it would be a

blunder to close these classes, which had been doing very good work[17]. It was placed on a permanent footing in 1925.

In 1930, the number of girl students in the collegiate classes attached to the Ravenshaw Girls' School fell from seven to three. But it was extremely pleasing to note that five women students took their admission into the Ravenshaw College for women, thus beginning a movement among girl students to join a college for men. This was welcomed as a healthy sign of progress[18]. The two and three candidates sent up in 1931 and 1932 respectively in college classes attached to Ravenshaw Girls' School had been successful[19].

Since the Intermediate classes at the Ravenshaw Girls' School provided the only opportunity of college education for only girls in the province of Bihar and Orissa, it attracted girl students from Bihar occasionally. In 1934, of the eight students in the collegiate classes, one came from Ranchi, one from Patna and one from Rajashahi. The institution badly needed a more modern footing[20]. The appointment of a qualified teacher recruited from the Lady Irwing College at Delhi provided facilities for the study of Domestic Science in the college classes from 1936[21].

There was no degree college exclusively for women. The paucity of women students had so far not warranted the establishment of such an institution. The very limited number of women students in the I.A. classes, which had never exceeded a dozen by 1936, indicated that all students who passed the matriculation did not come up for collegiate education. A very small number of women who wished to take a degree course, were having co-education in colleges for men where they had greater choice of subjects, efficient staff and an academic atmosphere[22].

Since the girls were beginning to attend the Men's college, the necessity for the small but expensive classes at the Ravenshaw Girls' School was considered doubtful by some officials. In opposition to this view, the Lady Principal argued that the classes were definitely useful for some girls.

Because, they matriculated at an age when they would be too shy to join a college for boys although they might join the degree classes at the Ravenshaw College later on[23].

EDUCATION FOR THE BACKWARD CLASSES

The Government paid very little attention to the education of the backward classes before 1905. After 1905, under the impact of National Movement for freeedom, education of the backward classes received some consideration from the Government. The backward classes of Orissa can be broadly divided into two categories : (1) Aboriginal races and (2) Depressed castes[24].

Education of the Aboriginal races from 1905 to 1936

The aboriginal races of the Orissa consisting chiefly of the Khonds, Santals, Gonds, Khairas, Sabaras and Mundas lived in the remoter jungles. Some cultivated patches of land on the hill sides. Others grazed herds of cattle and buffaloes in the forest. Others again lived by hunting. They were patient, insured to suffering, and naturally truthful. But the most universal features in their character were their shyness and confirmed dislike of any settled occupation. Their poverty was extreme. They had little commerce with the villages of the plain, and carried on their own simple transactions with each other by barter. There was on effective desire among them for the most elementary education. Amidst such a population, separated as their settlements were by dense forests or steep mountains, the difficulties of pioneering education were extreme. Even when the aboriginals began to mix with the Hindu population and adopted the Hindu customs, the difficulty of educating them diminished only in degree and not in kind. In 1905, H. W. Orange, Director of Public Instruction, Government of India, remarked : "Though less remote, he is in many cases difficult of access and stands outside the ordinary educational life of his environment, though less destitute, his poverty is often

extreme ; though less completely cut off from the world, he is as a rule supremely indifferent to education"[25].

Although some special schools were established for the aborginals, they showed much antipathy towards the education. Those aboriginals, who had been living for generations in the vicinity of Oriya villages of Christian settlements, had adopted Oriya vernacular, and had been subjected to civilizing influences. They had to a considerable extent revealed their interest in attending schools. In 1901-02 and 1906-07 only three and twenty-five aboriginal boys passed in Lower Primary Examinations respectively[26].

In 1907, Raibahadur Madhusudan Rao, the Inspector of Schools, Orissa Division, stated that the difficulties of pioneering education amongst the aboriginal races of the forests were of a most serious characters. Their isolation from the people of the plains, and their consequent imperviousness to the influences of Hindu civilisation, their dislike of settled occupations and their intense attachment to forest life, their want of written language, and the absence of a definite knowledge of the possibilities of their mother tongue, and above all, their positive aversion to education, presented difficulties of a stupendous character. The Inspector of Schools remarked : "These difficulties which I am afraid can not be solved off hand. They call for the strenuous efforts, both on the part of the Government, and that of the philanthropic societies".[27]

Particular encouragement was also given during the year 1907-08 to the education of aboriginal races in Orissa. The grant made for primary education in the Khondmals was increased from Rs. 3,596 to Rs. 10,990. As a result the number of special schools for Khonds increased from 8 to 11 with the rise in the number of students from 1739 in 1906 to 2668 in 1907. The Inspector wrote : 'The bulk of these pupils are Khonds who reside in the hill tracts of that district within the range of Hindu civilization. The increase in the number is chiefly due to the establishment of additional

special schools for them during the year under review out of the increased allotment sanctioned for the furtherance of education among the aboriginals".[28]

The children should in the early stages of their school career receive instruction through their own vernacular. But there were only spoken languages of the aboriginal races. Hence, the opinion of Commissioner of Orissa was invited as to how far the language of the aboriginal people should be recognised as a means of instruction.

K. G. Gupta, the Commissioner of Orissa, desired Oriya as the medium of instruction of the aboriginal races for the following reasons. Firstly, it was generally acknowledged that a good knowledge of the language of the people among whom these aboriginals lived (Oriya) was essential to them for the purpose of earning their daily bread, and for the transaction of the daily affairs of life. Secondly, whatever might be the language adopted in the elementary stage of a child's education, it was clear that in the higher stage, Oriya should take its place. Thirdly, in the Orissa Division, besides the Santals, who mostly congregated in and about Mayurbhanj, there were the Juangas, Kols and Bhuyans, who were reported to be generally familiar with Oriya. Fourthly, as regards Kols, Juangs and Khonds, it would not be advantageous, even if it was practicable to teach them in their own tongues.

K. G Gupta proposed that as regards these Khonds who still retained their own language, an attempt might be made to teach them in Kui language[29].

The experiment of imparting instruction through the medium of the Kui language in the lower primary schools of Khondmals was introduced in 1922. In 1929 it was discontinued under the order of Government. This decision, while regrettable on sentimental and philological grounds, was considered necessary in order to enable the Khonds to fit their daily life in the Oriya community which surrounded them[30].

The Santals constituted the largest and most important of the aboriginal tribes. An interesting account of education among them was given by J. M. Macphoil as described below.

One of the chief difficulties in the way of primary education among the Santals was "the absence of a demand for it and of any public sentiment in favour of it". Their instincts and ambitions were not literary. The children were sent out to the jungle to herd cattle at the age at which they should be beginning school-life. Early marriage was not so serious an abstacle to female education as it was among many other sections of the community. For, as a rule, marriage did not take place till puberty had been reached. But while very few Santal boys were sent to school, a Santal School-girl, except in a mission school, was practically unknown. Education was not merely looked upon as unnecessary, but also positive evil, unfitting the boys and girls for the life that awaited them as tillers of the soil. Even among those who had been led to desire education, it was found that there was a limit to the extent of their possible mental development. Many of the children at first were quick to learn and had no difficulty in performing feats of memory "which would be almost impossible to many children in more highly civilized countries". But very few persevered till they reached the upper primary stage and still fever reached any higher limit[31].

Santal villages were small, remotedly situated, and far apart from each other. This made it difficult for a teacher to gather a sufficient number of children to gain government recognition and grants-in-aid for the school. And it made efficient supervision almost impossible. Ten was the minimum number of pupils usually insisted upon to entitle a school to grant. In most villages, this number of children of school-age, able and willing to attend school, could not be found.

Even when they could be found, it was necessary to adopt what was known in Europe as "the half-time system". It was out of the question to expect the children to devote the

main part of the day to schooling. In most cases, the school assembled during the mid-day hours when the cattle were brought in from the pasture lands. In other cases, the forenoon was occupied in ploughing, and afternoon in lessons. In some cases, the school again might assemble in the morning hours in order that the boys might spend the rest of the day in hunting.

The pathsalas, meant for Santal boys, met under the shades of a spreading tree, or in disused cowshed or threshing floor, where the pupils chalked their letters on the hard-baked ground, or traced them with their fingers in the sand.

The first schools opened among the Santals had, as a rule, been boarding schools. If a boy was to be educated, he must also be clothed, housed and fed. For, his parents would not be expected to be chargeable for him as he no longer took his share of the house-hold work. But the system had been necessary in order to provide elementary education to some Santals, who, it was hoped, would "prove to be the apostles of education among their fellow tribes men, and through whom some of the ideas inculcated in the school would filter down to the villages".

Although the Santals showed little aptitude for literary education, they afforded much more promising material for industrial training. They were clever with their fingers, and also with their toes. Their jungle-life had trained their powers of observation and of physical endurance. They were not handicapped by caste prepossessions. They were born engineers with perfect genius for the construction of tanks and roads. They could learn carpentry, blacksmith work, brick laying, silk culture, gardening, printing, etc. very readily and with good results. Technical education was still in its infancy among Santals, but it seemed to be capable of great developments[32].

In 1922, the number of special schools for aborigines was 22 with 415 pupils. The number of aboriginal pupils at

ordinary schools was 3,792 in 1922. Of them the number of Christian aborigines was 72[33].

In 1933, there were 33 schools specially intended for aborigines with 710 pupils[34]. There were 2 Sub-Inspectors especially for the aboriginal schools. The number of aborigines under instruction in 1936 were 8860. Of them Christian aborigines were 1568[35].

Apart from the establishment of special schools, other methods adopted for the spread of education among these classes chiefly consisted of award of special scholarships, reduction and remission of fees, the free supply of books and slates, special arrangements in hostels, and capitation grants to ordinary primary schools teaching pupils of these classes.

By 1936, the education of aboriginal tribes lamentably backward, Apart from the paucity of funds, there were other difficulties in the way of the spread of education among these tribes. The literary medium was not their mother-tongue. The teachers capable of teaching the aboriginal pupils were difficult to obtain and supervision was hampered by the scattered nature of the population[36].

Education of the depressed classes from 1905 to 1931

The depressed caste Hindus of Orissa were Dhobes, Chamars, Taulas, Noliahs, Bauris Kondras, Pans, Haris, Ghasis etc. They were very poor and ranking very low in the scale of Hindu Society. Most of them were generally regarded as impure[37]. They were far behind the people of other Hindu castes in the matter of education even in early 20th century. The number of male and female untouchables at schools in Orissa in 1912 were 13,396 and 1,525 respectively[38].

Special measures similar to those intended for the benefit of the Muslims had been adopted for the education of these classes. They hitherto consisted chiefly of special scholarships, remission of fees and capitation grants to schools admitting depressed class pupils.

As regards the depressed caste Hindus, the chief difficulties in connection with the education of a great proportion of them were (1) the strong aversion of the higher castes to mix with them under the fear of pollution, and (2) their hereditary criminal propensities resulting in the formation of gang of thieves and robbers. The first difficulty was being partially met by the maintenance of special schools for their benefit. This was a measure which was developed from time to time by the grant of additional funds. The second difficulty which had scarcely been attended to, called for the establishment of small industrial schools, designed to reform and convert their criminal organisation[39].

There were 127 special schools with 3022 pupils in 1917. Among them, there were 35 special schools for the Pans in the Angul District. Cuttack district had 26 schools for the untouchables which received stipends from the District Board and 4 unaided schools of the same class. Thirteen of the stipendiary schools received stipends at rates higher than those usually given. And in addition, the Board paid a small capitation allowance to teachers of Primary Schools for teaching children of these classes. In Balasore, stipends were given to some schools for the depressed classes, and capitation allowances, scholarships and free-studentships were also given. In Puri, special rates of pay had been given in some cases to teachers for teaching children of depressed classes but in other cases the rates were very low[40].

In 1914 sanction was accorded to the improvement of the 35 schools for Pans in the district of Angul and to the appointment of a special inspecting pandit for their supervision at a total cost of Rs. 3,345/- a year. In addition, a sum of Rs. 3,000/- was placed at the disposal of the Commissioner of Orissa, for expenditure in the districts of Cuttack, Puri and Balasore on capitation grants for teachers admitting Pan boys into their schools.

The committee on Primary education were unable to agree as to whether the best method of education the depressed

classes was to establish special schools for them, or to endeavour to secure their admission into ordinary schools. The Government decided that the problem might be dealt with in different ways in different districts according to the circumstances[41].

The District Board of Cuttack appointed a peripatetic instructor for schools for the depressed classes in January 1925[42]. A similar peripatetic instructor was appointed by the Balasore District Board in February 1926. As expenditure on such appointments was unauthorised, Government asked to terminate those appointments[43].

The education of the these untouchables had excited attention in the legislature. In order to encourage it, the Government announced the following further concessions in 1926.

(i) For a period of five years, the members of the untouchable castes, as defined in the Education Code, throughout Orissa would be excused fees at all secondary schools, managed or aided by Government, in which less than half the pupils were aboriginals or untouchables, and local bodies would be requested to grant the same facilities in schools subject to their control.

(ii) Ten stipends in all would be created, tenable at the Cuttack Government Middle English School, for pupils of the depressed castes. It would be left to the Inspector of Schools to award these stipends, and to fix the period of tenure. The value of each stipend would be Rs. 3/- in the case of boys whose houses were in the Cuttack Municipality and Rs. 8/- in the case of boys from outside. When, as the result of these stipends, some members of these castes had been brought to the High School, the question of granting further stipends tenable there would be considered.

(iii) A hostel large enough to hold ten boys would be constructed at the Cuttack Government Middle English School and this would be specially reserved for members of these castes[44].

The hostel had since been opened up and filled quickly. In 1827, it was reported that full use was made of the hostel and stipends for untouchables at the Government Middle English School at Cuttack. A hostel attached to the Angul Elementary Training School was reserved for Pan boys in 1928[45].

It was proposed to take a step towards its promotion by appointing a special inspecting staff. After the abolition of the two posts of peripatetic instructors appointed by District Boards of Cuttack and Balasore, the necessity for this was keenly felt[46]. Accordingly, a special inspecting staff, on a temporary basis, was created by Government, consisting of a senior special inspecting officer and a junior officer for Orissa[47].

It was found that where the untouchables could attend the ordinary schools, they showed better results there than if they attended special schools intended only for them. Besides, it was realised that this was economical and led to relaxation of caste rigidities. B. R. Jagamohan, Secretary to the Government of Bihar and Orissa, observed : "There is also evidence of a changing outlook on the part of the Hindu public... The policy of admitting them in mixed schools will inevitably reduce the difference such as these are between the depressed classes and the Hindu castes, and at the same time is the wisest from the point of economy particularly in a province where the financial considerations are paramount"[48]. Hence, the Government followed the policy of contracting the system of special schools for untouchables. Of the 35 schools for Pans in Angul, 24 were amalgamated with neighbouring schools, the teachers of which were given capitation allowances for teaching the Pan pupils. Owing to these rearrangements in Angul, the total number of special schools for untouchables in Orissa fell from 233 with 5,989 pupils to 209 with 5,823. In 1930, District Board of Cuttack had amalgamated 20 of them with the ordinary schools. But there was an increasing demand for special

schools for these classes in consequence of the Harijan Movement[4] .

Recommendations of the Primary Education Committee of 1931 : Regarding the Education of tho Depressed Class Children

The education of the depressed classes was in deplorable condition by the year 1931. The Primary Education Committee had made the following recommendations in the year 1933-34 regarding the education of the depressed class children.

(i) Schools receiving aid from local bodies should, if depressed class boys were not to be excluded, be removed from places inaccessible to depressed class boys, e.g., places of worship and private houses to other sites.

(ii) Depressed class children should be given equal opportunities for their lessons with boys of other castes. That is, they must be admitted to the school house and be given a seat in front of the teacher and the black board.

(iii) Local bodies should be asked to take into immediate consideration, the provision of more adequate facilities for the education of the depressed classes, especially in the form of special schools where a considerable depressed class population was concentrated. The provision of special schools should be regarded as a temporary measure for the encouragement of education among the depressed classes, but the general policy to be aimed at should be the free admission of depressed class boys into the ordinary schools.

(iv) Local bodies should be requested to make special provision in their budgets, for payment of compensation for fees to teachers of ordinary schools on account of depressed class boys reading in them, for the supply of books and writing materials, and for the maintenance of special schools for depressed class children.

(v) Scholarships should be reserved in every district for untouchable children provided meritorious candidates

were forthcoming, and the number of scholarships to be reserved should be determined by the proportion of untouchables to the total population of the district. If no meritorious depressed class candidates were forthcoming, the scholarships should revert to the general list. This recommendation was made subject to the condition that existing arrangements for the reservation of scholarships were not affected.

(vi) Seats should be reserved in elementary training schools, where necessary, for the training of teachers belonging to the depressed classes[50].

The above recommendation of the primary education committee about the education of the depressed classes were accepted by the Government after considering them in all seriousness. But their implementation depended on the willingness of local bodies to put them into effect.

The recommendation that schools receiving aid from local bodies should, if depressed class pupils were not excluded, be removed to other sites, was under the consideration of local bodies. The recommendation that depressed class pupils should be given equal facilities for their lessons with other pupils, i.e., they must be admitted to the school house and be given a seat in front of the teacher and black board, was also referred to the consideration of the local bodies. Local bodies were asked to take into immediate consideration the provision of more adequate facilities for the education of these classes, especially in the form of special schools in cases where a considerable population of these classes was concentrated, but the provision of special schools was to be only a temporary measure and to last until these children were freely admitted to the ordinary schools. The local bodies of Orissa came forward to implement these suggestions without any hesitation in a short span of time. The suggestion that local bodies should be asked to make special budget provision for compensating teachers who admitted pupils of these classes and also for the supply of books and writing materials was carried out by the local

bodies in due course. In consultation with local bodies, the Government decided that scholarships were now to be reserved for these pupils, the total number of scholarships available being divided up according to the number of pupils of these classes and the number of other pupils in each stage of instruction. Besides, the Government was determined to see that preference was given to the qualified teachers of these classes when admissions were made to elementary training schools[51].

From the year 1935, efforts were made to develop the primary education among the depressed classes on the basis of the recommendations of the Primary Education Committee of 1931. The special inspecting officers were appointed on permanent basis in November, 1934 to take the special care of the depressed class education. It was likely to give further impetus to the cause of depressed class education.

Although the Government established the special schools for the rapid spread of literacy among the depressed caste people, the bulk of students were reading in the common schools. By 1936, extreme apathy was noticeable in their attitude towards the education. Hence some suggested the necessity of introducing compulsory primary education among the backward class people. In this connection E. S. Hoernel, Commissioner of the Orissa Division, wrote to the Special Officer in charge of primary education as follows : "It seems to me that one of the chief incentives to a boy to take his schooling seriously is that his parents desire him to be educated and take interest in his progress··· The effects of primary schools on depressed class boys whose parents voluntarily send them to school to learn are not so encouraging as to suggest that the really beneficial results are to be attained in present conditions only by compulsion[52].

EDUCATION FOR THE MUSLIMS

Progress of Muslim Education between 1882 to 1905

In accordance with the recommendations of the Education Commission of 1882, the Government of Bengal formulated its policy with regard to Muslim education The adherence of Muslims to their traditional studies was a fact which could not be overlooked. It was, therefore, recognised that the encouragement and development of those studies was the most likely way to raise that section of the community to the position which they ought to occupy[53].

The Government continually recognised the fact that the Muslims had fallen behind the Hindus in respect of education, Hence, they followed generous policy of affording special encouragement to Muslim education by the adoption of various measures of liberal concession[54].

Most of the important centres of Muslim population in Orissa were well supplied with schools. There was scarcely an important Muslim village in Orissa which was not within an easy reach of either a secondary or an advanced primary school. What was generally done for all classes, benefitted them alike. No school in Orissa had been more successful in promoting the higher education of Muslim boys than the High English School of Kendrapara[55].

In respect of educational facilities, the Muslims of Orissa were better off than the other sections of the population. Apart from the advantages which they enjoyed in common with others, they had some special educational facilities, such as, (1) the privileges of free studentship to the limit of 8 percent of the school pupils in any aided high school and 12 free studentships in any Middie English or Primary School, (2) the benefits from the Mohsin fund chiefly in the shape of remissions of a part of fees payable to schools and colleges, (3) several special scholarships created by Government with a view to enable them to receive collegiate education, and (4) the relaxation of rules regarding the age of admission in

their favour[56]. In filling up vacancies in the posts of sub-Inspectors, and teachers in schools under public management, preference was generally given to Muslim applicants on the principle that the number of appointments held by Hindu and Muslims should be made more nearly proportional to their numbers in each district. In fixing rates of stipends to primary schools, special consideration was shown to those that were attended by Muslim pupils. Thus, the British Government made all possible efforts not to allow Muslims to lag behind others in the race for progress[57].

Encouraged by the special facilities mentioned above, a number of Muslim pupils were reading in the ordinary Primary Schools along with Hindu pupils. Besides, there were special schools where only Muslim pupils could read. In 1905-06, in the Districts of Cuttack, Puri and Balasore there were 9 Moktabs attended by 217 pupils. Three of them, with an attendance of 100 pupils, were in receipt of aid from District and Municipal funds. The Koran Schools numbered 42 of which 25 schools with 480 pupils were private schools. Those private schools were being gradually changed into puplic schools in the expectation of receiving aid from Government. The only institution for the education of Muslims in Sambalpur was an Urdu school. It was aided jointly by Government and the Sambalpur Municipality. There were 4 Madrasas in the Districts of Cuttack, Puri and Balasore. The Sultan Madrasa in Cuttack was aided by the Cuttack Municipality and had 72 pupils on roll in the year 1905-06[58]. The total number of Muslim pupils attending all classes of ordinary and special schools increased from 3195 twenty years back to 4,829 in 1905 by 51 percent.

Progress of Muslim Education during the period between 1905 and 1914

Several measures were adopted with a view to bringing about expansion and improvement of Muslim education during

the period from 1905 to 1947. The first step to improve the efficiency of maktabs was taken in 1905, when the Government sanctioned a scheme of giving grants-in-aid to maktabs on condition that they conformed to the simple departmental standard. From 1906, it was brought into force as far as funds permitted. Gradually, many of the indigenous Muslim Primary Schools or Maktabs adopted the standards prescribed under the scheme and was, therefore, transferred from the class of private schools to that of public primary schools. The funds provided for the purpose, were, however, inadequate[59].

In accordance with the said scheme, the Maktabs were divided into three classes, (1) those which gave religious instruction only, (2) those which taught Urdu or Persian or both (with or without the Koran) and also, upto an elementary standard, arithmetic and the vernacular of the district, (3) those new Maktabs which, under the improved conditions, were brought into existence[60].

The anticipation of the author of the scheme was realised by 1908. There was an increase of 7 aided maktabs and considerable increase in the number of Muslim boys and girls attending Maktabs during the year 1907-08. Rai Bahadur Madhusudan Rao, Inspector of Schools, Orissa, reported : "It was gratifying to note that some Maktabs conforming to departmental standards had been founded, and some lower primary schools situated in Muslim villages were converted into Maktabs of class III of the new scheme"[61].

Till 1910, the inspection of schools specially meant for the Muslims was done by the subordinate inspecting officers who were visiting general schools. There was no special inspecting officer for Muslim education. As special schools for Muslim grew in number, a special officer known as Inspecting Maulavi was appointed for them from 1910. The ordinary inspecting officers were also inspecting maktabs and madrasas. But it was the responsibility of the special

inspecting Maulavi to bring to the notice of the Inspector any measure necessary for the improvement of Muslim education. He was required to test the knowledge of the pupils according to the subjects of the curriculum. The teachers of maktabs were selected by him for undergoing training at the Elementary Training Schools. He was to spend atleast 200 days in the year on tour and was required to submit tour programme to the Inspector for his approval[62].

In 1912, one model Maktab was opened at Mohasingpur in the district of Cuttact. In 1913, Muslim Teachers' Training School was opened at Cuttack to impart training to the teachers of the special schools for Muslims. In Orissa, there were three hostels for Muslims with 25 boarders besides that attached to the Muslim Teachers' Training School at Cuttack.

A circular issued by the Government of India in April 1913 suggested that the teaching of Urdu should be provided in the ordinary primary schools where necessary for the benefit of Muslim pupils.

In the year 1914-15, one Urdu teacher was appointed for the 1st grade Training School at Cuttack. An experiment was begun with the teaching of Urdu in selected Guru Training Schools. The Urdu teachers were appointed in these schools for the purpose. The object was to give the gurus under training a sufficient knowledge of the Urdu vocabulary and script to enable them to teach their Muslim pupils, whenever necessary[63].

Committee on Muslim Education, 1914

In the year 1914, a committee was appointed to advise Government on the subject of Muslim education. They made following recommendations for the expansion and improvement of Muslim education. Firstly, they considered that the problem of improviug primary education among Muslims was essntially one of improving the Maktabs and drafted an improved curriculum for schools of that class. Secondly, they

considered that where the number of boys in one place was too small to justify the establishment of a maktab, one Urdu teacher should always be appointed in the ordinary primary school, if 15 or more pupils wished for instruction in that language. But they were of opinion that generally it would be preferable to open a separate maktab. Thirdly, they desired untrained teachers in maktabs to receive salary of not less than Rs 5/- per month on condition that they would present themselves for training when called upon to do so, while teachers trained in the Muslim Teachers' Training School were to receive not less than Rs. 12/- and teachers who had passed the vernacular Mastership Examination not less than Rs. 15/-. These rates were somewhat higher than those inforce ordinary for primary schools. But in maktabs the fees collected were somewhat smaller, the average for each pupil being Rs. 1.28 per annum against Rs. 1.38 in a primary school. Fourthly, they wished madrasas to be aided or maintained directly by Government while maktabs were to be left to the management or control of local bodies. They suggested that enquiries should be made as to whether any private madrasa would be willing to come under Government management and they sketched out courses for senior and junior madrasas. The examinations of the madrasas were to be conducted by a Board, which was to be constituted when the Government madrasas had been established. Fifthly, they wished an Inspector with the European Training to be appointed for the supervision of Muslim education, and considered that this Special Inspecting Officer should be a member of the provincial service. Sixthly, they wished to see a definite amount of accommodation reserved for Muslim pupils in all Government hostels[64].

Effect was gradually being given to the above mentioned recommendations of the committee, though it had not been found possible to carry them all out in full. The financial stringency had prevented the adoption of the scale of salary suggested for teachers of maktabs.

Seventhly, the committee on Muslim education recommended, for the benefit of maktab students, the reservation of a certain number oI Lower Primary but not of Upper Primary or Middle Scholarship. The justification was that the syllabus of maktabs and Lower Primary Schools differed and that maktab students, therefore, at present scarcely hoped to obtain Lower Primary Scholarships, while in Upper Primary and Middle Schools muslim boys read the ordinary syllabus. This recommendation was accepted by the Government and was given effect without delay[65].

Lastly, the committee recommended a revision of the system of grants to maktabs, based on the principle that recognised maktabs and Lower Primary Schools should have similar claims on the allotment available in each district for primary education and that the system of fixing minimum salary to be paid to teachers of different qualifications should be followed in each case. This recommendation had since been accepted, and the difficulty initially felt in assessing grants ceased to exist after some time[66].

Progress of Muslim Education during the period from 1914 to 1931

After 1914 Maktabs were classed as Primary Institutions and received all the facilities of a primary school. Local Boards took initiative and spent more money for their maintenance[67].

For proper teaching of the Muslim students in the special schools, a suitable body of trained teachers was necessary. The Balasore District Board made an attempt to train the Mnslim teachers. But the scheme failed because very few candidates were interested for training. A special Urdu teacher was appointed in the Guru Training School at Cuttack for the training of the Muslim teachers[68].

In the Lower Primary Scholarship examination, the Muslim pupils formerly could not compete with others because of differences existing in the curriculum of Maktabs

and the general schools. The introduction of new curriculum for Maktabs in 1918 gave wide scope to the Muslim pupils to compete for these scholarships. Besides, proportionate number of lower primary scholarships were reserved for them[69].

Despite all these measures, it seemed that Muslim education was not progressing well. It was far behind the education of the high caste Hindus even after many years. The fact remained that the Muslims failed to seize their opportunities in the same degree as the Hindus[70].

The table gives the distribution of Muslim Scholars (public and private) in all types of Schools in Orissa during the years 1914-15 to 1917-18[71].

Districts	*Muslim population of school going age, according to census of 1914*	*Muslim Pupils on March 31* 1915	1918
Angul	50	20	—
Balasore	4646	1767	1809
Cuttack	9508	5522	4949
Puri	2902	1337	1233
Sambalpur	531	183	199

Realising that the dearth of Muslim trained teachers was a great obstacle in the way of the spread of elementary education among the Muslims, one new training school was opened in 1917 at Bhadrak for Muslim teachers. Thus, there were two training schools for Muslim teachers in Orissa.

At these schools, it was found impssible to obtain candidates who had passed the middle examination, and men of lower qualifications were therefore being trained. It was reported in 1925 that the difficulty was still experienced in securing the required number of candidates qualified for admission. Hence, iu 1926, the training school at Bhadrak was closed down. Thus, after 1926, the training of Muslim teachers in Orissa was mainly confined to the training school at Cuttack[72].

A Superintendent of Islamic studies was appointed in 1921 for the province of Bihar and Orissa. His duty would be mainly in the improvement of madrasas but he would also advise on the general questions affecting the education of the Muslims. Meanwhile, two special Inspecting Officers were recruited in Orissa from among the Sub-Inspectors, and their duties lay in bringing to notice the requirements of Muslims generally rather than in connection with the madrasas for which work a more specialised knowledge of Islamic studies was required. The possibility of replacing these officers by one Assistant Superintendent of Islamic studies was considered. But it was felt that if this was done, there would be a risk that the special needs of the Muslims might not be brought to notice. It was, therefore, decided that a change was not desirable. It was also considered whether the inspecting Maulavis, like the inspecting pandits, would be dispensed with. But again in that case there would be some likelihood that the special requirements of the maktabs might be neglected[73].

However, the special inspecting staff for Muslim education in Orissa consisted of a Superintendent of Islamic studies, 2 special inspecting Officers, and 10 inspecting Maulavis from 1926 to 1936[74].

The question of establishing a Board to conduct examination in Islamic subjects was under consideration in 1922. In this connection, the Superintendent of Islamic studies made following suggestions: Firstly, when such examinations would be started, a certain number of scholarships should be awarded on their results. Secondly, the different examinations should be regarded as equivalent to various university examinations, provided that the candidates satisfied the university by the required standard in English[75].

In accordance with the recommendation of the Muslim education committee, Madrasa examination Board was constituted for the province of Bihar and Orissa in 1923. In 1925 it was reported that it was performing useful function[76].

In 1926, Govenment took the following decisions in respect of the Maulavi, alim and fazil examinations. Firstly, they should be recognised as equivalent to the matriculation in arts for the purpose of educational appointments. Secondly, the students who had passed the maulavi and alim examination were eligible for recruitment for lower division clerkships and typists in the Secretariat. Thirdly, those who had passed the maulavi or alim examination and had also passed in English by the matriculation or intermediate standard should be eligible for clerical posts in a number of Government offices[77].

Maulavis were appointed in several ordinary Primary Schools in the interest of Muslim pupils. The trouble arose from the fact that many maulavis, though learned in their own subject, were not able to teach the full primary course. It had since been decided that maulavis who had passed the maulavi examination or a higher examination should, on receipt of a District Inspector's Certificate of competence, be deemed equivalent to teachers trained on the middle vernacular basis. In other cases, they were to be treated as untrained teachers[78].

An examination of the number of scholarships won by Muslim pupils was made during the year 1930-31. It was decided to reserve for this community a certain number of Upper Primary Scholarships. A similar reservation in respect of lower primary scholarships had been made for maktab pupils since 1918[79].

The efficiency of the maktabs was questioned by the inspecting officers. Efforts to improve them continued by providing qualified teachers.

Recommendations of Primary Education Committee of 1931

By 1931, the progress of Muslim education had been highly unsatisfactory. The Primary Education Committee of 1931 made following recommendations for the development of the education of the Muslims. Firstly, a maktab should be opened in any place where ten Muslim boys, desirous to read in it, were forthcoming. Again, if in Primary School six pupils

were desirous of learning Urdu, an Urdu teacher should be appointed there. If six pupils actually intended to learn Hindi, a Hindi teacher should be appointed similarly in any maktab. If possible, the second teacher in the maktab should be capable of teaching in both scripts, so that an extra teacher might be avoided. Secondly, it was desirable that sufficient number of middle schools either Oriya schools giving instruction in Urdu or schools giving instructions in Urdu only, should be maintained by each district board in order to provide the number of Muslim teachers required. Thirdly, in Urdu Primary Schools, there should be one period a day for religions instruction, including the reading of Koran, and sometimes it should be allotted in the case of Muslim pupils in common schools. Fourthly, in future 'muktabs' should be called 'Primary Urdu Schools'. Finally, it was desirable to have common schools for Hindus and Muslim at the earlier stages[80].

On the recommendations of the Primary education committee, Government took the following decisions. Firstly, maktabs should be called Primary Urdu Schools. Secondly, these schools should henceforth not devote more than one period a day to religious instruction, including the reading of the Koran. Thirdly, opening of common schools for Hindu and Muslims was to be encouraged as far as practicable. Fourthly, in future the Text Book Committee would not, without special permission, approve for use in any subject at the lower primary stage or in any subject other than literature at the upper primary stage, a book which was not, as far as possible, printed in both the Oriya and Urdu scripts. Fifthly, teachers, too, were to be informed that while teaching Hindu and Muslim boys together, they must use as their medium of instruction a vernacular equally intelligible to both. It was hoped that these measures would be of real benefit to Muslim pupils of Primary Schools[81].

A revised syllabus for madrasas was prescribed in 1935 as the result of the labours of a committee appointed to examine

the old syllabus. It was likely to give further impetus to the cause of Muslim education[82].

During the period under review, Muslims were given enough facilities for primary instruction through the medium of Urdu in maktabs and common primary schools. In the year 1905-06, there was one maktab with 61 Muslim pupils in the district of Sambalpur, but the number of maktabs increased to 9 with 317 pupils by 1936.

State of Education of the Muslims in 1936

For the educational needs of Muslims, 6 Madrasas, 202 Maktabs including 56 for girls, 16 middle schools having an Urdu section and 14 Upper Primary Schools conducted entirely on an Urdu basis, were maintained in 1936. Then were no separate middle school for Muslims.

On the basis of the census figures of 1931, Muslims formed about 1.66 percent of the total population of Orissa. The percentage of Muslim pupils to the Muslim population was roughly 7.6. 8,213 Muslim pupils were under instruction in 1936. Of them, 40 and 350 were in the collegiate and high school stage respectively. The total expenditure on Muslim education was Rs. 38,962 in 1936. A separate inspecting staff for Muslim education was maintained[83].

The standard of teaching in maktabs or primary Urdu schools was poor. The teachers employed in then schools were usually unfit to teach any other subject except literature. Even religious instruction in some of them was reported to be unsatisfactory. Some expressed the opinion that it would be in the interest of Muslims themselves if the maktabs were replaced by ordinary primary schools wherever this was practicable without depriving the Muslim pupils of instruction in Urdu[84].

Muslim Girls' Education

The state of primary education among the Muslim girls was deplorable In the total number of girls under instruction

in all types of educational institutions, the number of Muslims girl represented 9 percent only in 1905. It lagged behind mainly because of the intense feeling among the Muslims that girls should be strictly secluded at a very early age[85].

There were 248 Muslim girls under instruction in the year 1906-07. Encouraged by the grant-in-aid system, special schools for them were opened at Balasore and Cuttack districts. Due to special consideration towards Muslim education by way of free studentship, scholarship, etc., the number of girls at these special Primary Schools continued to increase. By the year 1911-12 there were altogether 1,112 girls and women under instruction in Orissa. Miss Brock, Inspectress of Schools, wrote in 1913: "There is quite evidently a growing feeling among Muslims in favour of the education of their girls and women. This tendency seems to have come into being during the last 2 years. The fact has been strongly noted by all the Assistant Inspectresses as well as by myself"[86].

A proposal of starting Model Girls' Schools for Muslims was placed before the Government, but it could not be materialised due to financial stringency.

There were 45 Muslim girls' schools in 1914. But the teaching in those schools were far below expectation. The teachers were of very inferior qualifications. In some schools, nothing except the mechanical teaching of the Koran was being done. In most cases, women capable of teaching only Urdu were in charge of the schools. In certain cases, the women teachers could not write and had no acquaintance with the arithmetic or needle work[87].

No doubt, social prejudice stood on the way of girls' education. The purdah system prevented many promising pupils from pursuing their studies beyond the elementary stages. There was a lack of real desire on the part of the guardians to educate their girls. Some influential Muslims volunteered to use their influence in persuading the respectable members of the community to send their girls to schools[88].

The table given below shows the number of girls under instruction in the year 1915 and 1918[89].

Districts	*Muslim Girls of school going age, census of 1911*	*Muslim girls pupils on March 31, 1915 to 1918*		*Percentage of scholars on March 31, 1915 to 1918, to population of school going age, census of 1911*	
		1915	1918	1915	1918
Angul	17	1	—	5.9	—
Balasore	2374	459	481	16.5	20.3
Cuttack	5154	1000	1163	19.4	22.6
Puri	1474	293	329	19.9	22.3
Sambalpur	255	4	6	1.5	2.4

The above table indicates that there was a steady increase of Muslim girl students in all districts except in Sambalpur where the state of affairs was miserable. In the year 1936-37, there were 56 Urdu primary schools for girls in Orissa with 2310 girls. The special facilities such as, reservation of scholarships, appointment of special teachers and inspecting officers, etc. were provided by the Government to encourage the elementary education among them[90]. The main factors that prevented the education from progressing among the Muslim girls were strong social prejudice, strict adherence to purdah system, and lack of qualified female teachers, suitable syllabus and text books[91].

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Chapter Six

INDIGENOUS EDUCATION

The indigenous education was defined "as one established or conducted by the natives of India on native methods".[1] The purely indigenous Education in Orissa was carried on in Tols, Maktabs and elementary village schools or pathshalas.[2]

The tols were the indigenous institutions of the country for the prosecution of Sanskrit studies. The pathshalas constituted the indigenous primary schools in which an elementary education was given in the vernacular of the district. The maktabs were the schools in which the elements of Arabic, Persian and Urdu literature were taught[3].

The education commission of 1882 recommended that all indigenous schools, whether high or low, should be recognised and encouraged if they served any purpose of secular education[4]. The recognition and encouragement of indigenous schools, therefore, became an essential part of the educational system of Bengal[5].

The majority of the elementary schools in Orissa then conformed to the departmental standard and were included in the system of primary education. In order to bring the rest of the pathshalas under this system the rules were framed in 1899 to the following effect. Primary schools having an attendance of less than ten pupils were ineligible for any reward and were classified under the head of pathshalas[6]. But as soon as they could collect more pupils, they were classed as primary schools, brought under regular inspection of departmental officers and aided from public funds[7].

The Sanskrit tols numbered 68 in 1893. Of the tols, the most advanced were Puri Sanskrit Tol established by the Maharaja of Balarampur, the Sriram Chandra Tol in Balasore, and the Ganja Tol in Cuttack[8].

For the encouragement of Sanskrit tols, a scheme was sanctioned by Government in February 1893. The two examinations to be annually held, would lead up to the Sanskrit Title Examination and separate standards were prescribed in each subject. In addition to rewards to successful pupils on the results of the first and second examinations, the provision was made for the award of monthly stipends for one year to the pandits whose pupils distinguished themselves most in the competition[9].

The visit of Mahamahopadhyaya Mahesa Chandra Nyaya Ratna, a great scholar in Sanskrit, to Orissa after the publication of the above scheme proved a success and evoked much enthusiasm in the course of Sanskrit teaching. Under his guidance, associations were formed at the three district headquarters for the purpose of organising periodical examinations of tols and for rewarding them, under a system of payment by results [0]. The associations so formed were the Jagannath Samiti at Puri, the Orissa Sanskrit Samiti at Cuttack and the Balasore Sanskrit Samiti at Balasore[11].

Many of the tols adopted the standards prescribed for these examinations. The annual examinations were held under the control of the department. Thus the tols were improved and brought under departmental supervision. But no attention was paid to organise the village pathshalas having provision for the teaching of Sanskrit[12].

The first step to improve the efficiency of maktabs was taken in 1905, when the Government introduced a scheme of giving grants-in-aid to maktabs on condition that they conformed to the simple departmental standard. The account of maktabs from 1905 to 1936 has been given in the Chapter V[13].

SANSKRIT EDUCATION FROM 1905 TO 1936

There were 54 tols with 993 pupils and three Sanskrit Associations in Orissa, one in each of the three districts of Cuttack, Balasore and Puri in 1905. Two hundred twenty-

three and 93 candidates appeared at the first and second Sanskrit examinations respectively in 1906-07, of whom 105 and 31 candidates were successful. Ten candidates appeared at the Sanskrit Title examination of whom 4 were successful[14].

In 1914, a committee was appointed to advise the Bihar and Orissa Government on the subject of Sanskrit education. They recommended that a Sanskrit Association should be constituted for the province of Bihar and Orissa to conduct the Sanskrit examinations which until then had been managed by the Board of Sanskrit Examinations in Calcutta, to distribute stipends and rewards, and to advise government on all questions connected with grants-in-aid to tols, and generally in all matters affecting Sanskrit education. They wished a Superintendent of Sanskrit studies to be appointed in the provincial service and to be given four assistants of the status of Sub-Inspectors. They desired the Sanskrit schools at Muzaffarpur (Bihar) and Puri (Orissa) to be provincialized. Lastly, they favoured the existing system under which stipends and rewards were given to teachers and pupils on the result of the different Sanskrit examinations rather than a general system of grants-in-aid. The committee expressed the hope that these recommendations would lead to general improvement in many tols which the province of Bihar and Orissa possessed[15].

A Sanskrit Association consisting of a convocation and a council was established in October 1915. The former consisted of 100 members and the latter of 18. The President of each was the Hon'ble Maharaja Bahadur Sir Rameswar Singh of Darbhanga while Rai Sahib Pandit Baldev Misra, officiating Inspector of Tirput Division, was the Secretary. The council was to conduct the three Sanskrit examinations such as 1st examination, 2nd examination and Title examination. The question of establishing one examination higher than the Title examination was under consideration of the Government in 1916. It was said that the constitution of this

Association would give a great stimulus to the Sanskrit education in the province of Bihar and Orissa[16].

The Government considered that officers of the status of Sub-Inspectors would scarcely be suitable for the work of inspection. It was decided to appoint a Superintendent in the provincial service, who would have to be trained in Europe before he took up his duties, and two Assistant Superintendents whose pay was to be similar to that of the Deputy Inspectors[17].

One of the Assistant Superintendent was appointed in 1915. His duties were confined to the three Bihar Divisions and he assisted the Sanskrit Association in the conduct of its examinations.

A Superintendent of Sanskrit studies and a second Assistant Superintendent of Sanskrit studies were appointed during the year 1918-19. The post of Superintendent was first included in the Bihar and Orissa Education Service and subsequently transferred to the Indian Educational Service. The Superintendent's duties iucluded the inspection, with the help of two Assistants, of the Sanskrit teaching throughout the province of Bihar and Orissa, and also the management of the Sanskrit examinations. The 2nd Assistant Superintendent was in immediate charge of the Sanskrit education of the Orissa districts[18].

In 1915 there were 12 Sanskrit pathshalas in Orissa. These pathshalas taught, in addition to Sanskrit, the departmental curriculum in reading, writing and arithmetic for two hours a day. Sanskrit pathshalas were eligible for aid from local bodies, while tols had to rely on assistance from the limited amount at the disposal of the Sanskrit Council.

The Government was informed that some Sanskrit Schools where the pandits did not, and in some cases could not teach the Vernacular curriculum, were being aided from district funds. In order, therefore, that money intended for the expansion of primary education might not be used for other purposes, the Government desired that the rule should in

future be strictly enforced. Besides, following directives were issued. Sub-Inspectors must continue to inspect Sanskrit pathshalas and should bring to the notice of the District Inspector, who would report to the Board, any breaches of the rule. Aid should not be granted to new Sanskrit pathshalas nor should such pathshalas be established by district boards, unless the pandit or where there were two teachers, one at least of them, was certified by the District Inspector to be qualified to teach the departmental curriculum. If the Sanskrit pathshala taught beyond the infant stage, it was desirable that there should be two teachers, as in a lower primary school, and one of these at least should be qualified to teach the ordinary subjects[19].

The Sanskrit tol at Puri was gaining in popularity. It had been taken under the control of government, provided with new buildings and dignified with the name of college in 1917[20]. It had a roll of 116 both in 1917 and in 1922. It had been provided with a new hostel in 1921[21].

The number of tols in Orissa decreased from 78 in 1922 to 57 in 1927. The decrease in the number of tols appeared to be largely, if not entirely, due to the fact that some tols called themselves pathshalas in order to be eligible for aid from local bodies. In other words, they began to teach some sort of primary curriculum in addition to Sanskrit. As might be expected, it was the number of pathshalas that showed the increase. The number of Sanskrit pathshalas was 14 in 1922 and 26 in 1927[22].

The increase in the number of these institutions presented problems of a serious nature. On the one hand, they imparted a form of education which, whatever its merits, made it difficult for ex-students to obtain remunerative employment. On the other hand, they necessitated a diversion of funds which could otherwise be devoted to the campaign against literacy[23].

In July 1927, Government published the report of the committee which they had appointed in November 1925 to

examine the state of Sanskrit education in the province of Bihar and Orissa and to suggest improvements. Following orders were passed on their report. Special Sub-Inspectors were to be appointed to take charge of not less than 80 Sanskrit institutions each. Two reserve scholarships of the value of Rs. 25 a month were to be created for three years. Pandits who had passed the prathama or a higher examination should be allowed, if they passed a qualifying test, to be trained in elementary training schools. The revised course of study proposed for the Sanskrit examinations were to be implemented as soon as possible, subject to the concurrence of the convocation. Finally, it was decided to reconstitute the convocation and the council so as to provide a large elected elements in each[24].

Shortly thereafter, steps were taken to reconstitute the convocation and council. The new convocation of 75 members and council of 20 members assembled in the year 1930-31. The term of office of the members was to be three years in place of five.

In 1931-32, 89 tols of Orissa were aided. Five years ago, the number of aided tols was 69. Although, the number of tols did not show marked increase, the improvement in teaching in the tols was noticeable. The Superintendent of Sanskrit studies wrote :

"It is gratifying to note that in a considerable number of tols the teachers have to some extent improved their method of teaching and the work is done more regularly than before. As a result of ceaseless and strenuous efforts on the part of my assistants and myself, the pandits have also now begun to realise the importance and utility of imparting instruction to senior students through the medium of Sanskrit, in which the boys are required to give their answers at examinations. This has greatly helped to improve the power of speech both of the teachers and their pupils and is rightly regarded distinctive feature of Sanskrit education in the province"[25].

The revised courses of study for Sanskrit examinations

came into effect in 1930. There was now a common Prathama examination, followed after an interval of three years, by a Madhyama examination, in which there were now two compulsory papers and two optional papers. The latter was to be selected from four different groups out of eight. The Acharya examination was now divided into four parts, each of which was normally taken after an interval of one year. It was to be held in 13 different groups. On passing the first two parts, a candidate would be given the title of Shastri and on passing all four parts he would be given the title of Acharya[26].

In order to give the pupils a longer period for preparation, the date of examinations was changed from the middle of March to the middle of April with effect from the year 1931-32. During the five years, 1927-32 several gold medals had been endowed for the benefit of successful students[27].

Some drawbacks of the Sanskrit pathshalas were pointed out. Firstly, the teaching of the vernacular curriculum in Sanskrit pathshalas was notoriously defective because most of the pandits knew little of the subjects other than Sanskrit. Secondly, the teaching of Sanskrit itself could not at present be supervised. Most of the members of the ordinary inspecting staff knew little of Sanskrit, while the special inspecting officer for Sanskrit Schools known as Assistant Superintendent was unable to inspect properly all the pathshalas as well as tols[28].

In 1931, following decisions were taken for the improvement of Sanskrit pathshalas. Since the teachers of Sanskrit pathshalas were entitled to levy fees in the same way as the teachers of other primary schools, those who did not do so could now claim an increase in their stipends. Further, the pathshalas with only one pandit should not be allowed to send up pupils for the prathama examination, since one pandit could not teach five Sanskrit Classes and the departmental course in reading, writing and arithmetic also.

There was not a single Sanskrit pathshala for girls. But there was a steady but slow increase in the number of girls

in pathshalas for boys. On this subject, the Superintendent of Sanskrit studies expressed his views as follows :

It was the women rather than men who were chiefly responsible for the timely observance of various religious duties and were rightly considered as custodians of the religious and moral welfare of the house-hold life. Girls, the future women of the country, therefore stood in greater need of working knowledge in Sanskrit than boys. A few years back, there was not a single girl to be found in any Sanskrit institution. But now the number of girls was steadily increasing. Had there been some Sanskrit institutions specially meant for girls, their number would have enormously increased by now. For, the majority of the Hindus still adhered to the pardah, and in spite of their great desire to give Sanskrit education to their daughters, were not prepared to send them to boys' Sanskrit institution. The difficulty was very keenly felt after the Prathama stage, when girls were generally over 12 years of age and could not safely be sent to boys' vidyalaya. This was the reason why almost all girls, after passing the Prathama, were obliged to discontinue their studies. In the interest of Sanskrit education, it was highly desirable to open at least one Sanskrit pathshala for girls in each Sub-division. They should be staffed with elderly male teachers so long as competent women teachers were not available.

The difficulty which the ex-students of Sanskirt Schools experienced in obtaining employment still continued. Government had decided that pandits who had passed the Madhyama or Acharya examination and had a knowledge of English, equivalent to the Matriculation standard, should be eligible for certain posts in Secondary Schools when opportunity arose. It had been, however, plain that in making appointments many appointing authorities considered the matriculation course to provide a more useful training for public life than was provided by a study of Sanskrit[20].

In 1934, the senate of Patna University had passed a

resolution to the following effect. Those title holders who after passing the Intermediate examination either wholly or in English alone, passed the B.A. examination in English as well as papers IV and V and VI of the Honours course in Sanskrit prescribed for the B.A. degree, would be awarded a new degree of Bachelor of Oriental Learning (B.O.L.). Thereafter, such students would be able to obtain another new degree, that of Master of Oriental Learning if they attained the standard prescribed for the M.A degree[30].

In 1935-36, Government sanctioned the proposal of the University to institute two new degrees of Bachelor of Oriental Learning and Master of Oriental Learning for the benefit of students who wished to specialise in classical language[31].

In 1935, the Sanskrit Association expressed the opinion on the Madhyama examination as follows: The course prescribed for the Madhyama examination was too long to form a proper basis for test. The percentage of success at the Madhyama examination was less than that at the other examinations held by the Association. On this account, many pandits from Orissa were presenting themselves at the Madhyama examination held in Bengal[32].

In 1936, the Director of Public Instruction reported gratifying improvement in the daily attendance, discipline, examination results and general work of the tols and Sanskrit pathshalas. He attributed this to the combined efforts of ordinary and special inspecting officers as well as to active interest taken by the Sanskrit Association.

THE SATYABADI VIHAR

In view of the soulless character of the present-day official education and the enormous cost it involved, the need of a more efficient education based on indigenous lines and easily accessible to all classes of people, rich and poor, was keenly felt, specially in Orissa so proverbially noted for its constant floods and famines. Pandit Gopabandhu Das, who was feeling it and thinking out his plan of work from his college

days, gradually got a band of highly educated and dedicated workers entirely devoted to work out his plans. The institution was started on 12 August 1909 in the beautiful groves of Sakhigopal. Pandit Gopabandhu Das was the founder, and life and soul of the Vihar.

The Satyabadi Vihar was the outcome of serious experiments in educational ideals quite on national lines and entirely independent of Government help and control. Though education engaged the immediate attention of its workers, they set before them also an ambitious programme of social and political advancement of their people.

As a new experiment in sound national education, the Satyabadi Vihar had certain peculiar features, entirely distinct from other educational institutions in the country.

While appreciating some of the liberalising effects of modern-day education, the Satyabadi workers attempted at restoring the old Ashrama life, marked for its plain living and high thinking. As a matter of fact efforts had all along been made to supplement the ancient scholastic discipline of Brahmacharya with the active and many-sided habits of modern life. This was what appealed to Sir K. G. Gupta when he said, "The School is a happy combination of old and new methods".

Most of the boys lived with their teachers in the hostel as freely and comfortably as they did with their parents at home. The hostel life followed a daily routine of duties carefully prepared with due regard to the harmonious development of physical, intellectual, moral and spiritual capabilities of its inmates. Regular habit in early bath, morning and evening prayers, the punctual attendance at the various functions of the day, i.e. meal, study, play etc. were carefully insisted upon.

Nevertheless, the boys enjoyed sufficient liberty and were themselves the custodians of the discipline, messing and the other affairs of their hostel life. The workers of Satyabadi Vihar believed that the real moulding of the character of a

student was effected, not so much in the rigid discipline of the class room, as in the free atmosphere of the playground and the dining hall, and at the time of leisure and recreation, In fact, it was this feature of the hostel life Satyabadi Vihar which received the appreciation of so eminent an authority as Sir Edward A. Gait. He observed : "other commendable features of this School are general atmosphere of ssmplicity and good fellowship"[33].

In keeping with the ancient Ashrama life, the Satyabadi Vihar had all along been imparting education in the open air in its groves in the fair weather. In due course, by compulsion of the Education Department, it had to erect a costly building, which was however used mainly in the rains. The open-air system has not only been able to elicit a chorus of approbation from illustrious visitors, like Mr. J. G. Jennings, the then Director of Public Instruction of Bihar and Orissa, Dr. A. Lancaster, M.D. (London) an eminent Medical authority, Sir Ashutosh Mukherji of Calcutta, and Sir Edward A. Gait, then Lieutenant-Governor of Bihar and Orissa ; but in practice it had also stood the test of time. It had worked successfully from the beginning to the end, and by a resolution moved by its founder Pandit Gopabandhu Das, in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council had been accepted, recognised and promulgated as a system by the local Government.

Furniture and other expensive requisites in modern educational institutions were considered serious drawbacks to the spread of real education in the country, and more so in a poor region like Orissa In the Satyabadi Vidyalaya, the boys were made to sit on mats on the floor with low sloping desks before them. This mode of sitting was fitted to the habits in the Indian homes. The educational authorities of Orissa had been convinced of the utility of this sort of seat-arrangements and had promulgated them by circulars in their schools.

Education, as the workers of Satyabadi Vihar concived it, was not a calling but a mission of life. So almost all the

workers were life members of the Vihar wedded, so to say, to life-long poverty. Plain living and high thinking of the ancient Gurus was not a mere maxim with them, but a daily standard of living which had so long kept up their spirits in working out the sacred mission. All visitors, from the Lieutenant-Governor of the province down to the Inspector of Schools, had appreciated the enthusiasm of its workers. They were satisfied with 'mere pittance', though there were Graduates and Master of Arts of the University among them.

The Educational authorities had to admit : "The conditions under which they (our workers) live were most favourable to the fostering of high educational ideals". Through the efforts of Pandit Gopabandhu Das, then a member of the Education Board, Bihar and Orissa, the rigid standard of the Department about the salary of the teachers was waived in case of those working in a 'bonafide altruistic spirit'[34].

Education in the class room was not the sole aim of the Satyabadi Vihar. Students were allowed to go out with their teachers to see men and things with their own eyes. They took up social service as a duty whenever they found an opportunity to. do so. During epidemic seasons, they went about to neighbouring villages, distribute medicines and nursed the patients. On festival occasions their services as volunteers were always requisitioned at the two important pilgrim centres of Puri and Sakhigopal. They gladly removed dead bodies of persons, known and unknown, and even of depressed classes for proper cremation 'as the last act of neighbourly kindness of man to man'. In times of famine and distress in any part of Orissa (where unfortunately such occurrances were so frequent), the inmates of the Satyabadi Vihar gladly underwent any hardship to relieve their suffering brethren. Their strenuous efforts in relief centres had made them familiar with the realities of life.

Besides theoretical education, due importance was attached to technical training in order to fit boys for the battles of

life. Spinning, weaving, carpentry, agriculture, and coir and cane work were the main subjects of industrial training. Spinning was compulsory for all students, weaving for selected big boys ; while students were free to choose any one of the rest. There were 16 looms weaving only Khadi of different textures, plain twill, towel etc. Seth Jamnalal Bajajji kindly contributed 100 charkhas for using in the Vihar. About 25 acres of land had been acquired for training in agriculture[35].

With these and such other features, the institution had originally been started quite independent of Government connection. But as Orissa was poor, and backward in public spirit and adventure, the popular demand for a recognised institution had to be taken into consideration. In 1917 it was affiliated to the Calcutta and subsequently to the Patna University as a High School called the Satyabadi School.

But it was said that its connection with the University was an impediment to its free growth. The tuition fees had to be raised even against the wish of its workers. To keep up even this crippled freedom, they refused a recurring grant of Government, which was pressed upon them at first as a condition for affiliation to the University, and subsequently with no less force. One of the workers of Satyabadi Vihar wrote : "A free institution like ours was sometimes looked upon by Government as a menace to the normal order of the things. We were not free from such suspicion, until some fair-minded high Government officials were convinced of the honesty of our purpose and innocence of our work".

As a recognised H.E. School, the institution had its best of days. Its roll rose to above 400, and the success of its students at the University Examinations was satisfactory, which justified the aspiration of its workers to raise it to the status of a college.

As a matter of fact, Government was offering a non-recurring grant of Rs. 20,000/- to an upper storey upon the existing building to provide accommodation for college

classes. Negotiations were still proceeding for the building grant, when Pandit Gopabandhu Das introduced the Non-co-operation movement into Orissa. Its item of National Education naturally appealed to workers of Satyabadi School who now found the way they had long lost in the midst of the splendour and prosperity of their institution. The School was accordingly nationalised on 22 January 1921, immediately after the Nagpur Congress.

After nationalisation, Intermediate classes in Arts had been opened with 12 students, and a comprehensive scheme of national education had been framed for use in the Vihar, which was also followed in the other national institutions in the country. The teachers and professors had prepared suitable text books some of which were now in use in Government institutions as well. They were preparing text books for all grades of education. The Vihar had 116 boys on the roll with 14 members on the staff including 5 M.A's in March 1921. In 1921, one of the members of the staff was in jail, and one had been deputed to the Khadi Department of the District Congress Committee[36].

From 1921 onwards, some 15 poor and deserving boys were provided with free boarding and lodging purely out of local donations and subscriptions collected daily by the teachers and students from the neighbourhood. The workers of Satyabadi Vihar found ourselves daily pressed to make provision for an increasing number of such students.

Besides national education, the other items of the Non-co-operation movement commended themselves to the Satyabadi workers, as they involved beneficient activities for the building up and strengthening of the national life and character, contemplated in their original scheme. They did their best to promote Swadeshi, to advance the cause of temperance, to organise villages and to remove untouchability. In the Vihar, special help and eucouragement were given to students hailing from depressed classes. Thus working out the programme of the Non-Co-operation movement, this institution

was proud to record the noblest sacrifice it had made for the cause of the country. Pandit Gopabandhu Das, the life and soul of the Vihar, had been locked in the prison cell for two years. He had been followed by Pandit Nilakantha Das, the next senior worker, who had been sentenced to four months' imprisonment together with a fine of Rs. 200.

After nationalisation, the financial condition of the institution went from bad to worse for several reasons. The promised Government grant of Rs. 20,000 could not be accepted. The patrons who had been helping the institution with money withheld their subscriptions. Because of the firm belief in free education, all tuition fees were abolished. The mass of people who favoured Non-Co operation, famine-stricken as they frequently were, could render Satyabadi Vidyalaya very little pecuniary help. Moreover, after nationalisation, greater attention was paid to industrial classes. It was hoped that spinning and weaving would be a paying concern. From experienee it was found that in an institution training young boys it was not possible to make it so. On the contrary, it required investment[37].

The increasing financial pressure led to the rapid decline of the institution. It was felt that, unless the Satyabadi Vihar was placed on a sound and permanent financial basis, national education could not long commend itself to the people nor could its objective be attained. The roll fell down considerably. A popular institution having a long and glorious history behind it, came to an end in 1926. There is hardly any doubt that the Satyabadi Vihar made outstanding contributions in social, cultural and national life of the then Orissa. Sir Ashutosh Mukherji was visited the Satyabadi High School in June 1917 worte : "I have visited the Satyabadi High School with great interest. The school possesses many remarkable features. It is managed by well-educated Oriyas, who have realised the great truth that spread of education amongst their people can be effected on the surest and soundest lines by persons, who are prepared to make a

great sacrifice. It is obvious to me that the school is backed by more than one such devoted and enthusistic young man. They have further realised that true education is possible without expensive and luxurious equipments ; indeed, such equipments are rather a hindrance than an assistance to the cause of the spread of education amongst an essentially poor people. Indians in the old days were accustomed to receive sound education and culture without appreciable expenditure of money ; under altered conditions, that may no longer be possible ; but it cannot be denied that many well-meaning people labour under the delusion that expensive buildings and other like agencies are essential for the spread of education. The promoters of this school have set a laudable example to the contrary. Their ideals are high, they understand the value of discipline and culture-mental, moral and physical, the result of their labours is likely to be great, for the very reason that the beginnings are so humble ; one cannot but wish that every village in Bengal should possess a genuine place of instruction like the Satyabadi School''[38].

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Chapter Seven

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

MANAGEMENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS BY THE LOCAL BODIES

Up till 1885, the responsibility of fostering and superintending primary education was to rest with the local executive officers, that is, with the Magistrate and Collector The passing of the Bengal Local Self-Government Act of 1885 entrusted the direct responsibility for primary education to the local bodies.

Lord Ripon's Government provided for the introduction of Local Self-Government. A government resolution laid down the policy of administering local affairs largely through rural and urban local bodies, a majority of whose members would be non-officials. These non-official members would be elected by the people wherever and whenever officials felt that it was possible to introduce elections. The resolution also permitted the election of non-official as Chairman of a local body[1].

Provincial acts were passed to implement this resolution. The object which the Bengal Legislature had in view in passing the Bengal Local Self-Government Act of 1885 was two fold ; viz. (i) to educate the people to interest themselves and to participate in the management of public affairs, and (ii) to lighten the burden of administration, of which the strain on the Government offices was continually increasing. The act contemplated the constitution of three classes of local authorities viz. District Boards, Local Boards and Union Committees. Under Section 6 of the Act, District Boards would be formed in all districts and Local Boards in all sub-divisions[2].

The Bengal Local Self-Government Act of 1885 was in

force in all districts of Orissa, except Sambalpur. The Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act No. 1 of 1883 was in force in the district of Sambalpur which was transferred to Bengal in 1905. There were, therefore, District Boards in the Cuttack, Puri and Balasore and District Council in Sambalpur. They were responsible for the upkeep of communications, for the provision of sanitation and medical relief, for the maintenance of primary and middle schools, and for the establishment of veterinary hospitals[3].

Section 62 of Local Self-Government Act of 1885 provided that subject to any rules made by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal under the Act, every District Board should be charged with and be responsible for the maintenance and management of all primary and middle schools under public management within the District, the construction and repair of all buildings connected therewith, the appointment (subject to certain special conditions) of all masters and assistant masters thereof and the payment of their salaries.

An important change which was introduced during the quinquennium, 1902-07, was the introduction into the Act of a section empowering a District Board to appoint an education committee. According to this, the committee was to consist of members of the District Board, and such other residents of the district as might be selected by the Board and approved by the commissoner of the Division[4]. It was not function of the education committee to issue orders with regard to the teaching or management of the primary school. Its duty was to offer suggestions for the consideration of the authorities of the school or the Education Department[5].

Under Section 110 of the Local Self-Government Act, a District Board might, with the permission of the Lieutenant-Governor, transfer the management, control or supervision of any school or schools to a Local Board. When this was done, the same rule as those which regulated the responsibility of District Board would be applicable to it. District

Board must, in all cases, retain the general power of supervision and control. There had not, as a fact, been much delegation of educational responsibility to Local Boards by 1905.

By 1905 it was found that the officers of the Education Department generally worked in complete harmony with the District Boards. The District Board was dependent on the D.P.I. in the sense that the educational expenditure provided in a District Board budget had to be approved by him[6].

Even after the transfer of direct responsibility for primary education to the District Board and its Chairman, the Local Self-Government Act, however, did not really alter the position of the District Magistrate with regard to education for two reasons. In the first place, he was responsible to Government for the working of the District Board. Secondly, the Magistrate was invariably the Chairman of the District Board and its executive authority[7].

The Bengal Local Self-Government Act of 1885 was amended from time to time. It had mainly three objectives. Firstly, it was designed to make local bodies more representative of the areas which they served. Secondly, additional powers had been conferred upon local bodies. Thirdly, it aimed at the relaxation of official control over local bodies

At the beginning of 1906, Sir Alexander Pedler issued a circular to inspecting officers explaining the position of executive officers in relation to primary education and emphasizing the necessity of cooperation. The following extract gives the gist of the instructions :

"The policy...is that while the Magistrates and Collectors and other executive officers and commissioners in their Division were charged with the responsibility of fostering and developing primary education in their districts, and while seeing that a sufficient proportion of funds is devoted to this purpose, educational officers were, on the other hand, charged with the duty of rendering so much help in this matter as can be given and with the duty of consulting such officers in

all efforts made to improve primary education, while they were responsible for the educational standards, the teaching and the expert inspection of such schools. Both of these sets of officers can materially assist one another by hearty co-operation''[8].

Local Boards had been formed in all the Sub-divisions of Orissa by 1922 and there were eight Local Boards in Orissa. Gradually, the District Boards were delegating powers over primary schools to the Local Boards[9].

The Village Administration Act which was passed in 1922 made a significant alteration in the system of Local Self-Government. District Boards were empowered to hand over part of their duties relating to road, sanitation and primary education to the Union Boards which would be constituted under the Act.

A representative conference of members of District Boards and Municipalities under the presidency of the Minister for Local Self-Government was convened in November, 1921. It recommended that the control over Local Bodies by Commissioner and District Magistrates should in all cases be limited to inspection and criticism[10].

The relation of the Education Department with local bodies continued to be generally satisfactory. The District Inspectors all complained of over-work and the D.P.I. had no doubt that the complaint of this sort would be heard so long as the District Inspectors had to do so much of the District Board's work. In addition to their works as inspecting officers and to such work on behalf of Government as the selection of candidates for scholarship examination, and the management and supervision of middle schools, they were practically the executive officers of the District Boards as far as primary schools were concerned, and a large number of bills and similar documents passed through their hands[11].

It was reported in 1924 that the position of the Sub-Inspectors had become very difficult in the districts of Cuttack and Balasore. Many Sub-Inspectors in the past,

had no doubt, regarded themselves as in complete control of the schools in their circles and resented the interest which members of the new boards were taking. But actually such interest went too far at times. There had been cases where a member of a Local Board had called upon teachers for explanations, thus usurping the functions of the Chairman or Vice-Chairman. It also took undesirable forms, when members had interested themselves not so much in the true work of the schools as in using the teachers as agencies for the collection of subscriptions or for Khaddar propaganda[12].

When these facts came to the notice of the Education Department, the following instructions were issued to the Inspecting staff by G. E. Foucus, the D.P.I. Firstly, it was the plain duty of the inspecting staff "to report to Government any action of a Local Body which was contrary to the law or the statutory rule made thereunder, and such action no Local Body can fairly take exception". Secondly, where the difference was one of opinion, the inspecting staff must give way unless they were able to convince Government, or the Local Body concerned that they were right[13].

A resolution recommending that the control of Sub-Inspectors should be transferred to local bodies was carried out in the legislative council of Bihar and Orissa by 33 votes to 28 in April 1924. Government informed the council that they were not in favour of any change at present. The local bodies had constant complaints that they had insufficient control over primary schools. The Government had called for a report as to whether there was substance in the allegation, and if so, what changes were feasible and expedient. The matter was to be discussed further at a conference[14].

In 1926, it was decided that the Sub-Inspectors should remain Government servants but the local bodies had been given large powers in the matter of their appointment and control. This vexed question was ultimately settled.

During the period from 1922-27, a new series of problems

had arisen owing to the reconstitution of local bodies, nearly all of which had non-official Chairman and Vice-Chairman. Of course, wide use had been made of the more liberal grants which the Government had been able to make, and the non-official Chairman appeared to be more interested in education than the old official Chairman used to be. In such cases, the only difficulties that had arisen were due to the fact that the Chairman could not disregard demands made by the party on the Board to spend more for the middle schools even if he felt that primary schools were more urgently needed. The educational authorities alleged that there had been too many cases in which local bodies appeared to have been actuated by motives other than the best interests of education. They were enumerated as follows :[15]

(a) In some cases teachers had been victimised, apparently for not supporting a particular political party. In one case, for instance, a false report to the effect that a school was not in existence was made by a member of the District Board. Another case involving hardship to teachers was one in which a member of a District Board used his position as a means to secure from teachers loans which he did not repay.

(b) At least one member of the inspecting staff had been victimised, an entirely false case being instigated by Chairman of the Local Board.

(c) Undesirable persons had been appointed as teachers owing to their adherence to particular political views.

(d) In some places regular gathering of the teachers had been arranged, the purpose being to some extent at least political and no regard being had to the inconvenience which such meetings would necessarily cause both to the teachers and the schools.

(e) Undue prominence had been given to the subject of spinning in the schools for training teachers. Spinning was encouraged by the District Boards of Balasore and Cuttack. In one case it was established to the satisfaction

of Government that the schools or asrams were primarily maintained for the purpose of political propaganda against the established Government, and that the opportunity was being taken to try to inculcate of disloyality into the minds of Gurus.

(f) There had been cases of deliberate interference with those managing committees of schools which disagreed with the political views of the District Board authorities.

(g) Unsuitable books and pamphlets had been purchased, prescribed or distributed in certain cases, and some District Boards had passed resolutions recommending the purchase of unsuitable periodicals.

(h) Funds had been collected from schools for political purposes.

(i) Grave irregularities had taken place in connection with the distribution of money for primary school buildings. In one case a sum of Rs. 300 was sanctioned for expenditure on the house of the Chairmen of the Local Board himself. Neither this Chairman nor the member of the District Board, who took money from the teachers, was removed from their membership. For, the Local Self-Government Act of 1922 deprived Government of all power to remove members except on the application of the Board.

(j) Some District Boards had insisted on their employees wearing khaddar, at any rate had strongly advised them to do so.

(k) In some cases, members of District Boards other than the Chairman and Vice-Chairman had usurped executive function, thereby causing considerable confusion.

(l) In some cases Boards had prescribed undesirable songs for use in schools.

(m) In some cases, the Boards seemed to have used their powers in a very arbitrary way. One of the glaring instances of the abuse of power by the executive of the Local Boards was the ruthless manner in which the teachers of the stipendiary primary schools were being transferred. The Sub-

Inspectors or Deputy Inspectors under whom they had to work were not even consulted. It was an established practice in every department to take the opinion of the officer in charge into consideration in matters concerning his subordinates. A teacher under the Local Board was reported to have been transferred to four or five places within a period of three weeks.

(n) In some cases grants given by Government for particular purposes had been kept in hand for a long period or used for other purposes. A particularly bad case of this kind was that of Puri Municipality, which received a grant of Rs. 17,000 in the year 1921 on a promise that it would find Rs. 8,500 from its own sources, but so far appeared only to had been spent Rs. 3,260 out of the total sum available.

The D.P.I. remarked: "The various irregularities committed by the Local Bodies are formidable and taken by itself would suggest that education is being administered very badly by the local bodies concerned". But, in his opinion it would, however, perhaps be a mistake to take too pessimistic view for the following reasons, Firstly, the Chairman or Vice-Chairman of the local bodies were in most cases persons who had no executive experience. Secondly, new Boards were formed at a time when particular political views were very much in the ascendant. The D.P.I. expressed the hope that matters would show distinct signs of improvement in due course[16].

The control of primary education by the Local Boards had not been altogether successful, to some extent, owing to lack of experience. The Inspector of schools reported instances of appointments of Gurus without taking educational fitness into consideration, transfer from Boards' Schools to stipendiary schools and vice-versa without regard to the privileges of teachers directly employed by the Boards, unjustifiable dismissals of Gurus, neglect to consult developmental officers in such matters, violation of rules, delay in

payment of Gurus and the purchase of unsuitable prizes and library books. Grants which were made by Government to assist in financing the erection of primary school buildings had been diverted to other purposes. H. Lambert, officer on special duty, commented : "Many years must elapse before the exercise of their powers by the majority of District and Local Boards in the matter of primary education can be regarded as satisfactory[17]".

During the year 1928-29, the financial condition of the local bodies went from bad to worse. In consequence they found themselves unable to pay to the Gurus even the minimum rates prescribed by the Government. The department did its best to secure that no teacher was deprived of his stipends or given a reduced stipend without proper notice[18].

The administration of the District Boards of Balasore and Cuttack had given the Government considerable cause for anxiety. They were on the verge of bankruptcy, because of the diversion of earmarked grants, at the beginning of 1930-31[19]. Gradually they had extricated themselves from the financial difficulties into which the rashness of their Local Boards had plunged them.

There had been some improvement in respect of the control of the sums placed at the disposal of the Local Boards for educational purposes by the District Board. The majority of the Local Boards now understood that it was necessary to cut their coat according to their cloth, i.e., to keep the cost of the schools and stipends in their areas within the allotments received[20].

The District Boards, on the whole, provided a fruitful field for political activities. They were reported to have used primary school Gurus for political propaganda work. This could not but cause grave uneasiness on the part of the Government. On the other hand, however, the spirit of co-operation with Government, had shown no signs of diminishing. The inspections made by commissioners and District officers had been welcomed, and made real use of by the Boards[21].

At the beginning of the year 1930, the Government framed a rule that a teacher in any school managed by a District Board should be disqualified for continuance of his employment if he should take any part in political propaganda. In accordance with this rule, 120 teachers were reported to the Chairmen of the local bodies for taking part in political work. In the eyes of the Department, the action taken by the Chairman was, in most cases, inadequate[22].

The primary schools in the towns were controlled by the Municipalities in their respective areas. It is true that power of recognition was vested on the Education Department, but like the District Boards, Municipalities in respect of directly managed schools, possessed the power of deciding where new schools should be opened, and the manner in which accommodation for them should be provided. The Education Department frequently alleged that very inadequate control was exercised over the primary schools, and activities of the teachers were not supervised as it should be.

The most disquieting feature of Municipal administration was the progressive deterioration in the collection of municipal taxes. Consequently, Municipalities could not pay required attention to the expansion of education in the towns[23].

There were six Municipalities in Orissa under the Bihar and Orissa Municipal Act, 1922. The towns which had Municipalities were Cuttack, Puri, Balasore, Sambalpur, Kendrapara and Jajpur. On the whole, the activities of the municipal bodies in the sphere of education were scanty[24].

After the reforms of 1920, when official control was eliminated, the elective system was introduced on a wide scale and non-official elected Chairman became the rule, great hopes and aspirations were arosed in the field of local self-Government. But the activities of the Municipalities in the sphere of education had fallen short of the popular expectation. Instances of internal dissensions, party feuds, subordination of public interest to personal advantage, and

general unwillingness of many men of character and integrity to stand for election as commissioners had been prejudicial to the healthy development of Municipal administration. The poverty of the towns in Orissa, small as they were, lay at the root of the financial stagnation in Municipalities. This was, no doubt, relieved to a very limited extent by suitable contributions from Government for specific objects. It was commented : "Before any substantial progress is made, effective steps will have to be taken to tap all possible sources of revenue, and municipal bodies mnst be prepared to incur the odium of a policy of adequate taxation and to guard against the demoralising influence of party faction"[25].

In 1936 there were four District Boards including the district council of Sambalpur and eleven Local Boards, viz. three in Cuttack, two in Puri, two in Balasore and four in Sambalpur. The Local Boards continued to exercise powers and discharge duties delegated to them by the District Boards, which, as a rule, performed important functions directly. The control of primary schools was among the chief functions of these subordinate Local Boards. There were eight Union Boards, viz. four in Cuttack, one in Balasore and three in Puri. They were constituted under the Village Administration Act of 1922. The activities of these bodies included maintenance of primary schools. But these bodies were not sufficiently well-developed to fulfil this object[26].

Substantial grants from the provinciai revenues to the District Boards after 1930 had stimulated advance in the sphere of education. The number of upper primary and Lower Primary Schools and middle schools maintained by the Boards increased considerably. But a good deal still remained to be done in the field of primary education of boys and girls, particularly in constructing school buildings, in increasing the number of teachers and avoiding the undue retention of pupils in the lowest classes of primary schools.

Although no instances of friction between the officers of the Department and the Local Bodies were noticed by the

year 1936, matters were not satisfactory in several ways. It could not be expected that in individual questions there should always be an agreement between the educational staff and the local bodies. On the other hand, there were complaints of a general nature which indicated that the present arrangements for the management of primary and middle schools, required a thorough overhaul Among other things, the following might be mentioned :

(1) In some cases primary education was controlled by union Boards which had neither educational committees nor educational advisers.

(2) Even where local bodies had educational committees, or advisers, they were by no means always consulted. Even when the committee met, they were sometimes consulted on matters such as the purchase of books, while cases of appointment, leave, transfer and the like were dealt by the Chairman or Vice-Chairman.

(3) Transfer of teachers were still too much common. There were complaints of this kind from all the districts.

(4) There were several complaints that untrained teachers were appointed and given stipends when trained teachers were available, and that stipends were given without any reference to the District Inspector, which was required by the statutory rules.

The majority of the complaints were made not against the District Boards but against the Local Boards or Union Boards, or rather against the Chairman or Vice-Chairman of those boards, who seemed to act in an irresponsible way. It was desirable that some of the District Boards would have had the courage to take back the control of education from those Local Boards which had shown themselves unfit to exercise it. But no instance of the kind had yet occurred. Of course, it was difficult to secure action of this sort owing to the manner in which the District Boards were constituted. G. E. Foucus, the D.P.I. remarked : "The Education is a matter of national importance. If the local bodies, as at

present constituted, can not be trusted to use their powers in the best interests of education, it seems to me that it will be necessary to set up in each district a statutory authority for this special purpose. Such an authority, consisting of representatives of the local bodies and nominees of the Government will be able, unlike the District Boards, to devote its whole time to education, and since its members will be drawn from all parts of the district, they will be more likely to act in an impartial way than some of the agencies by which education is now controlled''.[27]

CONTROLLING AND INSPECTING STAFF FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

The Director of Public Instruction was personally responsible for the inspection of public institutions of collegiate education though colleges were also inspected from time to time by the University through the agency of the Inspectors appointed by the Syndicate. He was entitled to inspect any other public educational institution in his jurisdiction. He was responsible for the administration and control of government colleges, the administration of grants to aided colleges, and generally for the efficient working of the department[28].

When the province of Bihar and Orissa was created in 1912, no post of Assistant Director was sanctioned. But the works in the Directors' Office proved so heavy that it was found necessary to keep an officer on special duty till the post of Assistant Director was sanctioned on April 1915. Even with this assistance, the works in the Director's office remained very heavy[29].

In April 1912 a post of Inspector in the Indian Educational Service was sanctioned for Orissa. The Garjat States of Orissa were under his general control. The Orissa charge was felt to be too heavy and in 1914-15 it was limited to the Districts of Cuttack, Puri, Balasore and Sambalpur. The district of Angul and the Garjat States were placed in the independent charge of an Additional Inspector.

The Inspector and the Additional Inspector were responsible for the management of all the government schools for boys in their areas. They sanctioned grants to schools under their control, subject to the limit of budget allotments at their disposal, and after reference to the commissioner in the case of a new grants to a High School, and the District Officer in other cases. They were competent to sanction grants to any classes of schools for boys except middle and primary schools under District Boards and Municipalities. As regards girls' schools, the District Boards and Municipalities dealt with primary schools, and in other cases the power of sanctioning rested with Inspectress.

The Inspector and Additional Inspector were required to visit every High School in their charge at least once a year and other secondary schools as often as they could manage to do so. They were also expected to visit a number of primary schools every year so that they might see how the Sub-Inspectors, Assistant Sub-Inspectors and Inspecting Pandits were doing their work.

The Inspector was competent to make observations on all the educational proceedings of District Boards and on their budget while the District Board must consult him before giving a grant to any schools. He made all appointments to posts in Government service under his control of which the initial salary did not exceed Rs. 100, and in general he was responsible for the state of education in his Division. He was expected to consult the commissioner in all matters of importance and to give the latter any advice on educational matters that he might need. Inspector of Schools was expected to be on tour for not less than 150 days in a year[30].

In March 1914 when the ministerial staff was revised, the Inspector of Orissa was given a staff of five clerks. This number appeared to be generally inadequate. The Inspector of Orissa wrote: "There is marked increase in the number of letters received and issued and we cannot accept to bear this strain indefinitely, unless an additional clerk is

sanctioned for the Division. Three years ago the Inspector of Schools was asking for an additional clerk and yearly the need for one becomes more pressing".

Sanction was accorded in 1916 to the grant of a short-hand allowance to a clerk in Inspector's office, and the Inspector was allowed to take a clerk on tour with a view to facilitate the disposal of office work.

The office of the Additional Inspector for Angul and the Garjat states was held at Cuttack but it was moved to Sambalpur in 1917.[31]

In April 1912 there was only one Inspectress of Schools for the province of Bihar and Orissa with headquarters at Bankipur. Her charge was to heavy and a second Inspectress was appointed in April 1915. The Inspectress at Bankipur was now in the charge of Patna, Tirhut and Bhagalpur divisions and the other, whose headquarters were at Ranchi, of Chotanagpur and Orissa.

The Inspectress exercised over girls' schools powers similar to those exercised by Inspector in the case of boys' schools. The Ravenshaw Girls' High School at Cuttack, like the Ranchi Zilla School, was under the immediate control of the Director. In all matters relating to buildings and similar questions, the Inspectress was expected to obtain the advice and assistance of the Inspectors of Chotanagpur and Orissa.

There was one Assistant Inspectress attached to Orissa. She inspected all girls' schools except High Schools and Training Schools, and was required generally to assist the Inspectress in any way that the latter wished. She had to remain on tour for not less than 150 days in a year.[32]

The number of Deputy Inspectors posted in Orissa in 1912 was 10. In 1915 one new appointment of Deputy Inspector had been made for schools in Angul and Garjat States. The Deputy Inspectors were chief educational officers of the districts in which they were serving. They were the members of the District Boards and were expected

to act as their educational advisers. Deputy Inspectors visited all classes of schools except High Schools, first grade Training Schools and middle girls' Schools but were specially concerned with Middle, Upper Primary and Guru Training Schools.

In view of the importance and responsibilities of the duties which these officers had to perform, it had been decided in 1917 to give them gazetted rank and to place them in the provincial service as soon as funds could be found. A Deputy Inspector was required to be on tour for not less than 150 days in a year.

That the Superior Inspecting Officers should be properly trained was a self-evident fact. For the first time in 1916 a Deputy Inspector of Orissa was deputed to the Patna Training College. In 1917 the Inspector of Schools deputed another Deputy Inspector for training and hoped to have all trained after a year or two.

In order to relieve Deputy Inspectors of some portion of their heavy office work, the Inspector of schools suggested in 1917 that more satisfactory arrangements were necessary and extra clerks should be appointed to cope with the correspondence work which was steadily on the increase. The Deputy Inspector of Schools, Balasore, suggested the desirability of the appointment of an additional Deputy Inspector for that district. The Inspector of Schools considered this to be reasonable as that district was well supplied with schools and was very progressive in education[33].

The Sub-Inspectors were mainly responsible for the inspection and supervision of primary schools. They were required to be graduates. In Orissa there were very few local graduates. Even graduates were attracted by other services affording better pay and prospects. Hence, men of inferior qualifications were employed in those posts. Nearly all the Sub-Inspectors required special training for their work. But it had not been yet found possible to provide them generally with anything better than what the six-weeks' deputation to a first grade training school afforded[34].

It was gratifying to note that during the period, 1912-17, three graduates were appointed as Sub-Inspectors of schools. Every facility was being afforded to graduates who were entertained in place of Sub-Inspectors during their leave and deputation. Even, out of present 52 Sub-Inspectors, one one was an M.A, 2 B.As., 17 F.As and 32 Matriculates in 1917.[35]

The Inspecting Pandits were paid by District Boards and Union committees, unlike the other classes of Inspecting Officers who were all paid by Government. The greater part of the time of these Inspecting Pandits was spent in inspecting lower primary schools, though their duties were supposed to include the instruction of Gurus in the subjects of the prescribed curriculum.

Meanwhile, the inspecting staff of the lower grade had been so largely strengthened as to make it possible for each officer to cope satisfactorily with his work of inspection. As such the employment of Inspecting Pandits on inspection work appeared to be no longer necessary[36]. Besides, complaints had been frequent that they were apt to abuse their position, and instead of imparting instructions to the Gurus in the art of teaching, to harass them in various ways. The primary education committee recommended that they should be replaced by a smaller number of Sub-Inspectors. Consequently, no new Inspecting Pandits were being appointed when vacancies occurred and Sub-Inspectors were appointed in their places[37].

Assistant Sub-Inspectors were still considered as officers of doubtful efficiency. In 1909, the Inspector of Schools, Orissa, wrote : "Their cheapness is their only justification". He was in favour of placing the Assistant Sub-Inspectors in independent charge of circles, as regards inspection. For, it would fix the responsibility and would not permit the superior officer to throw the burden of this work on his subordinates, as he might be tempted to do. The D.P.I. expressed the opinion : "However sound this view may be,

the inferior qualifications of Assistant Sub-Inspectors, unless they are very carefully selected, are likely to stand in the way of carrying out educational programmes for some time to come".[38]

In 1909, MacLean, Inspector of Schools, Orissa proposed the appointment of a Special Inspecting Officer for the Muslims. The sanction had been accorded in 1912[39]. The special Inspecting Officer, whose post was one of subordinate education service, was responsible to the Inspector of schools for the state of Muslim education in Orissa. He might visit any school where there were Muslim pupils but were expected to confine his inspection to these pupils or to subjects in the curriculum usually studied by Muslims. One Muslim Sub-Inspector was appointed from the general staff to the said post. The measures that were adopted for the improvement of madrasas and maktabs necessitated the appointment of this special officer for their inspection[40].

The Inspector of Schools urged again and again the necessity for providing the Deputy Inspectors with additional clerks. The demand seemed to be reasonable, as the office work had greatly increased during recent years owing to the increase in the number of Sub-Inspectors and Assistant Sub-Inspectors. As the Magistrate of Puri thought, there was a tendency "to waste time and strength in reporting results instead of attaining them an evil which was perhaps unavoidable so long as superior officers required reports and statistics to work out the various schemes which were continually engaging their attention". The Inspector of Schools, Orissa wrote : "It would certainly be an economy of effort and money to leave the Deputy Inspector as free as possible for the real work of inspection and supervision, and to give him an additional clerk where the work of his particular district necessitates that step". In due course an additional clerk was provided to every Deputy Inspector[41].

In October 1914, orders were issued that each Inspector, Deputy Inspector and Sub-Inspector of Schools should hold

annual conference of his subordinates. Such conferences had often been held in the past, but there had been no fixed system. It was now laid down that at each conference, arrangements should, if possible, be made for a series of lectures, model lessons, and discussions on educational subjects. The lectures were to be followed by discussions and debates. These conferences had afforded valuable opportunities for exchange of ideas between persons interested in educational work. In 1917 the Orissa inspector expressed the opinion : "The utility of conferences as an agency for spreading new educational ideas and ideals has been much appreciated. The annual Divisional Conference especially has had the effect of engendering a strong feeling of unity and co-operation among the Inspecting officers of the Department"...[42].

During the period from 1917 to 1922, the inspecting staff for primary schools had been subjected to a considerable amount of criticism. It was based partly on the high percentage which the expenditure from public funds on inspection bore to the total expenditure from public funds and partly owing to the feeling that the inspecting staff for primary schools should be controlled by the locat bodies rather than by Government. During the year 1920-21, inspection cost 10.3 percent of the total expenditure on education in Orissa from public funds, while for India as a whole the percentage was 6.89.[43]

Several suggestions had been made as to how the expenditure on inspection could be curtailed. One of these was that the work might be handed over to village committee. This suggestion came partly from realisation of the following fact. There was an average of 91 schools in charge of each Sub-Inspector. This being so, each school could not be inspected more than once or twice a year and this was certainly not enough to secure regular work. It was felt that a village committee, if active, could do more in this direction.

But it was pointed out that this proposal had a disadvantage. Experience had shown that a village committee whose

sole duty was to look after a primary school, seldom took any interest in its work. The village committee normally consisted of men, who though perhaps interested in education, had not made it their profession. Such men might perhaps be trusted with the duty of appointing teachers, but they would hardly be expected to see that the teacher's work was efficient and that he taught satisfactorily. This would also scarcely from a suitable agency for the selection of boys for scholarships, for deciding disputes between schools in different villages or for collecting statistics. Besides, their opinion would not be a safe guide to the District Board when the latter was distributing funds at its disposal. The reason was that each committee would naturally want to get as much as possible[44].

In this connection, D.P.I suggested that for a proper distribution of funds and for the expert work involved in the inspection of primary schools, some form of special agency was undoubtedly required whatever use was made of village committees. It was clear to him that any substantial reduction in the number of officers was impossible, and that at the same time an increase in the total expenditure would have to be avoided. The only solution of the problem which he could foresee was to employ men of lower qualifications on a somewhat lower scale of pay. He was not satisfied that the graduates who were now employed as Sub-Inspectors took as much interest in primary schools or had the same sympathy with the needs of the villages as the better of the old assistant Sub-inspectors. It seemed to him that a satisfactory type of officers of the class trained as vernacular teachers for secondary schools could be obtained on pay distinctly lower than that of the subordinate educational service to perform the duty of inspection of primary schools. The D.P.I. concluded : "I must admit that many of the Inspectors of schools are strongly opposed to it, but it would be possible not only to prevent any increase in the expenditure on inspection, but to effect a substantial economy".[45]

Among important changes which had taken place in the subordinate inspecting staff during the period, 1917-22 were the gradual abolition of the posts of Assistant Sub-Inspectors. The officers were replaced, as opportunity offered, by Sub-Inspectors.

The posts of inspecting pandits who were formerly paid for by local bodies, had now been abolished. The additional Sub-Inspectors, whose appointment was necessitated by the change, were all paid by Government. The local bodies had in consequence been able te devote to primary education proper the sums which they formerly spent on inspection[46].

In 1921, a Superintendent of Islamic studies was appointed in the Bihar and Orissa Educational Service. His chief duties would be the inspection of madrasas and the work of the recently constituted Board of Islamic Examinations. There was already one special Inspecting Officer for Muslim Education employed in Orissa. This special officer was the man of the same class as Sub-Inspectors and his duties lay rather in bringing to notice the special requirements of the Muslims than in connection with the teaching of the oriental classics[47].

In 1925, the subordinate inspecting staff was reorganised. Government laid down a standard of one Sub-Inspector for 100 managed, aided or stipendiary schools with and additional Sub-Inspector for every 200 unaided schools. In consequence of this, the number of Sub-Inspectors in Orissa including Angul was reduced by 25. Each officer had now an average of 152 schools under his control.

A set of rules was issued to define the relation of Sub-Inspectors to local bodies in 1926. It was decided that the Sub-Inspectors should remain Government servants but the local bodies had been given large powers in the matter of their appointment and control. The D.P.I. wrote that this vexed question having been settled, the next in order of importance was to provide quarters for the officers, both Deputy Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors, who were posted at places, where suitable rented accommodation was not forthcoming.[48]

The Inspector of Schools, Orissa, used to hold the usual conference of their subordinate inspecting officers, and teachers of the schools under his control. A conference of this nature was described by him in the following words : "An important conference of all the district Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of the Cuttack district including some 500 teachers of primary, middle and training schools was held at Jagatsinghpur under my presidency. It lasted for a week and during its sittings several important problems of primary education in rural areas were elaborately discussed. It proved to be a successful experiment as it served its purpose by helping to infuse a new spirit in the minds of those present and many new ideas regarding village education and sanitation were imparted for the benefit of rural folk".[49]

Instances of friction between the officers of the Department and the local bodies were very few during the period under review. But serious differences of opinion arose between them on certain occasions. One Chairman of the District Board rightly remarked : "The difference of opinion would probably be less frequent if both the inspecting staff and the local bodies would remember that it is the advancement of education which is important and not their own prestige".[50]

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CONCLUSION

After 1905 Orissa entered into the mainstream of India's national life. Two main features which became conspicuous after 1905 were, first, the Utkal Union Movement for the unification of all Oriya-speaking areas and secondly, the National Movement for freedom. The British Socio-economic innovations after 1905 were influenced by those two movements.

At the beginning of the period, the Oriya-speaking people had no political existence as a united compact linguistic group. But slowly there emerged the movement for an Orissa for all the Oriyas. It culminated in the formation of the separate province of Orissa in 1936. This movement no doubt influenced the socio-cultural conditions of the people and in the background of socio-cultural progress, one finds slow and gradual unfolding of an educational system covering different sections of people.

Another factor which profoundly stimulated the progress of education was the progress of national struggle. The attention of the nationalists was concentrated on the grave problem of illiteracy. In their opinion, unless steps were taken to eradicate illiteracy, the abysmal ignorance of the country was destined to continue as a disgraceful feature. In the changing circumstances, the British authorities had to be more alert to the cause of popular grievance and pay more attention to the demands of the people.

Constitutional concessions were to follow in course of time. The Acts of 1909, 1919 and 1935 became the landmarks in constitutional developments. Power was being decentralised as far as practicable. Some of the basic administrative matters were transferred from the Central to the Provincial Governments and from the latter to the local bodies. With these developments, the education of the people became a

matter of considerable public interest. Every stage of the educational system came under close review. Consequent developments were affected by different phases. Though the desired objectives remained far from attainment, experiments were carried on to improve matters.

The Government of India's educational policy of 1905 laid maximum emphasis on primary education. As a move in that direction, the grants for primary education were increased greatly. But such grants did not prove enough to carry education to the masses of the people. In 1913, the Government of India adopted another Resolution saying : "The proposition that illiteracy must be broken down and that primary education has, in the present circumstances of India, a predominant claim upon the public funds, represent accepted policy no longer open to discussion. For financial and administrative reasons of decisive weight the Government of India refused to recognise the principle of compulsory education, but they desire the widest possible extension of primary education on a voluntary basis".

Striking changes were introduced in the field of primary education during the period under review. Attention was directed not only to the establishment of new schools but also to the improvement of those already established. The greatest drawback of the primary system of this period was the wastage and stagnation. This was attributed to different causes such as poor teaching, irregular attendance of the pupils, the admission of very young children and lack of interest on the part of parents.

Several measures were adopted to overcome it with a view to reduce illiteracy of the masses. Serious efforts were made to provide properly trained teachers. Higher remuneration was offered to primary teachers. Supervision over primary schools was strengthened. Changes were introduced in the curriculum of primary schools with a view to make it comprehensible to the pupils.

Yet the net outcome of three decades of experiments in

the field of primary education was not praise-worthy. In 1936 whereas the percentage of literacy in British India was 12 and in Bengal 20, Orissa had an literacy percentage of only 7.

For the expansion of secondary education, the Government continued to rely mainly on private enterprise assisted by grants-in-aid and subject to certain control. Because of Orissa's comparative economic backwardness, it did not give required response here as it did in Bengal or Bihar. Hence, the state of secondary education was far from satisfactory from quantitative point of view by 1936. But on the other hand, as a result of the reorganisation of First Grade Training School at Cuttack, the opening of training college at Cuttack, the provision of vocational subjects in the curriculum, emphasis on physical education and strengthening of inspecting staff, the improvement in quality of secondary education was perceptible.

Ravenshaw College at Cuttack was the solitary governmental institution in Orissa to impart purely collegiate education to men and women till 1936. The most commendable features of the collegiate education imparted in the Ravenshaw College during the period, 1905-1936 were opening of Honours in several Science and Arts subjects, provision of Post-Graduate teaching in English, increase of extra curricular activities, erection of new college buildings, accommodation of 346 boarders in the college hostels beginning of co-education and high sense of discipline of the students.

The collegiate education in Orissa suffered some serious drawbacks. Firstly, only one college was painfully inadequate to meet the needs of entire Orissa. Secondly, the costly nature of higher education tended to make it a monopoly of the richer classes and the urban people. Thirdly, supreme attention was concentrated on the study of English. But the standard of English teaching was not of high order. Fourthly, Honours courses were poorly organised. Library was neither

adequate nor up-to-date. Above all, the products of the college did not find suitable employment.

The British administration during this period neglected scientific and technical education By 1936 there were only one Medical School and one Engineering School in Orissa, and a few industrial schools to impart industrial training. But there were no Engineering College and Medical College in the entire province of Orissa to impart higher technical education.

For the promotion of female education, co-education was encouraged as far as practicable. The girls' schools were established in case of necessity. The special inspecting agency for the female education was created. Serious attention was paid to provide the girls schools with trained teachers. Even then the female education presented a disappointing picture. As late as 1936, the percentage of literacy among the Oriya women was only 2.4. Of course, the opening of Intermediate classes in the Ravenshaw Girls' School a concrete step towards the promotion of higher education among the women of Orissa.

During the period under review, several measures were adopted for the spread of education among the Muslims. All possible efforts were made to improve the Muslim educational institutions like Maktabs and Madrasas. Various examinations in Islamic subjects were reorganised to suit the needs of the Muslim pupils. The training Schools at Cuttack and Bhadrak played a very important role in the training of the Muslim teachers. Besides, a separate inspecting staff for Muslim education was maintained.

The Muslims formed about 1.66 percent of the total population of Orissa. But the percentage of Muslim pupils to the Muslim population was roughly 7.6. 9,713 Muslim pupils were under instruction in different stages in 1936. But no Muslim girl passed the Matriculation Examination by 1936. However, the Muslims of Orissa did not lag behind others in race for progress.

Although the education of the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes received special attention from Government, the spread of education among them was very slow. The methods adopted for the spread of education among these classes chiefly consisted of the award of special scholarships, reduction and remission of fees, the free supply of books and slates, special arrangements in hostels, and capitation grants to schools teaching pupils of these classes.

The Tols and the Primary Sanskrit Schools were the indigenous institutions of Orissa to impart instruction in Sanskrit studies. Several steps were taken during the period under review to reorganise and improve Sanskrit education in Orissa. The establishment of Sanskrit College at Puri in 1917 is a landmark in the history of Sanskrit education in Orissa.

One of the most notable events in the history of education in Orissa from 1905 to 1936 was the establishment of Satyabadi Vihar commonly known as Satyabadi Bidyalaya. It was the outcome of a serious experiment to educate the people of Orissa on indigenous lines. As a new experiment in sound national education, the Satyabadi Vihar had certain peculiar features, entirely distinct from other educational institutions in Orissa. They were the open-air system of education, the seat arrangements for students, the residential character of the institution and the sacrificing spirit of the workers. The highly educated and selfless workers of Satyabadi Vihar made educational advancement of the people a mission of their life. Their contributions to the building up and strengthening of the national life and character of Orissa were remarkable.

Educational development which resulted from the British administration from 1905 to 1936 deserve merit in the context of specific policies, measures and their outcome. But in the wider context of general history, this period did not provide Orissa with satisfactory educational progress. Much remained still to be done in expanding and improving the education of Orissa. The number of schools and the percentage

of school going children did not show any great change between 1905 and 1936. In 1936, the percentage of children at School to the total population was 9.1.

Some formidable factors hindred the progress of education. Firstly, the Government was never willing to spend more than a scanty sum on education. Another important factor was the neglect of education of the girls for which very little funds were alloted. This was partly due to the Government's anxiety not to hurt the susceptibilities of orthodox Oriyas. Even more it was because female education lacked immediate usefulness in the eyes of the foreign officials since women could not be employed as clerks in the Government offices. Thirdly, the emphasis on English as the medium of instruction in place of vernacular language at the high school level prevented the spread of education of the masses. Fourthly, the Local Bodies which could have carried the system to its natural size themselves became factional in approach, political in motive and slow by nature. To the Government, such weakness of the Local Bodies proved an opportunity to avoid the required attention. Fifthly, because of the remoteness of rural areas and lack of communication, proper supervision and inspection of schools by the educational agencies could not be possible. Many schools remained out of sight and many came under scanty attention. Sixthly, the growing poverty of the people continued to be a stumbling block in the path of educational progress. Seventhly, the caste prejudices continued to be strong in every part of Orissa and the children of the so-called lower class did not find it easy to enter the schools. The growth of education in a complex and caste ridden society was no smooth matter. It was one thing for an enlightened mind to appreciate the values of education, it was altogether a different thing to carry the same value to the minds of extreme conservatives or primitive dwellers in the hills. Eighthly, in the matters of female education the genuine conservatism of the people in general stood in the way of progress. The education of a girl could mean differently to

different persons of the same caste or even to different members of the same family. Lastly, the main difficulties in the way of the spread of education among the tribes were that the literary medium was not their mother-tongue, that qualified teachers were difficult to obtain, and supervision was hampered by the scattered nature of the population.

Because of all these barriers, the improvement was poor and general backwardness continued as before. The educational developments failed to keep pace with other aspects of social and political progress.

Yet it may be said that the foundations of modern educational needs were clearly laid during the period under consideration. It is for those foundations that the educational system assumed its real significance. Various experiments obviously led to definite conclusions. The most notable conclusions were, the introduction of trained personnel to take charge of primary and secondary schools, revision of curriculum on modern basis, composition of text books on each subject, appointment of necessary inspecting staff at every stage and proper attention towards buildings and equipments. Side by side, backward class education, female education and Muslim education were brought within the orbit of the educational system.

Thus, even though quantitative growth was yet a far cry by 1936, the qualitative growth had received a standard shape. On the basis of those qualitative achievements, the quantitative growth became almost phenomenal in the post-Independence era. In that sense the period under review can be described as the formative period for the educational system of Orissa.

Appendix One

TEXT-BOOKS

The production of text-books in Orissa had been left to unguided private enterprise upto 1912. There was a text-book committee for the province of Bengal. Its function had been confined to advising the Local Government as to whether the books placed before them by the Director of Public Instruction could be approved or not. A great many books had been produced under the system and there was now a long list of text-books approved by Government. But there was evidence that the great majority of text-books which were being used in schools were, educationally speaking very unsatisfactory. In the words of W. W. Hornell of Indian Educational Service, "The production of sound text-books is vital to the future of education in Bengal".

The preparation of text-books was not an easy matter. It was scarcely realised that the writing of a good school book "called for a combination of qualities which are rare even in the most highly educated society". In the first place, a very considerable knowledge of the subject treated was essential. A man must be very sure of his facts before he could explain anything to a child. Secondly, some knowledge of the psychology of childrens' mind was indispensable. Thirdly, the possession of both these qualities was of no use, unless they were combined with a simple but dignified expression, a gift which was rare indeed.

To the difficulties which universally inseparable for the preparation of school books must be added certain linguistic difficulties. As regards Oriya, there seemed to be no reasons for supposing that a more or less uniform written language in Oriya was being evolved. The linguistic condition enhanced enormously the difficulty of producing school books in simple but dignified language.

In the circumstances outlined above, it was no wonder that satisfactory school books were now not available. In

this connection W. W. Hornell pointed out : "The persons who have that may be called on intellectual qualities required for writing of school books must obviously be few and the majority of these will probably not possess the necessary linguistic capacity. It would seem then, that the only hope of producing really satisfactory text-books was in securing a combination of the best educational and linguistic ability available. This can only be done by Government··· The works of private authors are not to be debarred but the books prepared under the direction of Government will lead the way'. He was of opinion that no book, whether prepared under the supervision of Government or not, should be allowed to be used in schools, until it had satisfied the criterion of a real educational and linguistic test[1].

Experience gathered by 1912 did not lead one to suppose that the Text-Book Committee as at present constituted for the province Bengal was not capable of applying such a test. This committee consisted of a miscellaneous collection of persons, most of whom are extremely busy men. Their function was primarily to see that the books used in schools contained nothing offensive. This duty they had performed satisfactorily. They could scarcely, as at present constituted, be held responsible for the educational soundness of every book to which they accorded their approval.

After the creation of the province of Bihar and Orissa, a Central Text Book Committe for the province was constituted in May 1913, with headquaters at Bankipore. It consisted of twenty members in addition to the Director of Public Instruction, who was ex-officio President. A Sub-Committee consisting of five members was constituted for Orissa division to consider Books written in the vernacular of Orissa. The Sub-Committee at Cuttack had been definitely subordinated to the Central Committee.

It was decided to form special committees to deal with the following subjects :

(i) English Literature, Grammar and Composition,

(ii) Mathematics, Natural Science and Sanitation,
(iii) Urdu, Persian and Arabic,
(iv) Hindi and Sanskrit,
(v) Bengali,
(vi) History and Geography,
(vii) Education and Teaching.

The Text Book Committee used to meet three times a year. Lists of approved books are published half-yearly, while every year consolidated lists of such books was brought upto date and gazetted. Books approved for libraries were divided into three classes : (1) Books for reference libraries, (2) Books for class libraries and (3) Books for Staff libraries.

From the list of books approved by the Text Book Committee, the Director prescribed certain books to be used in all primary and Middle Schools and the lower classes of government High Schools. This list which was prepared after reference to the Inspector, who in turn were free to take the opinion of their subordinates, was generally followed in aided schools also, through such schools were free to choose any books from the approved list.

An attempt was made in 1915 to replace the drawing books then in use, which contained figures mainly symmetrical and designed. Orders were issued to the following effect. In future the drawing books should be blank and carefully selected. Drawing Cards should be used as models. In free hand drawing, symmetrical figures should be employed for the most part. Simple, natural and common objects were to be drawn. Snapshot drawing and drawing for money should be encouraged. Difficulties were however experienced in obtaining a suitable series of drawing cards.

Complaints as to difficulties in obtaining the prescribed text books were becoming less-frequent. Arrangements had been made to publish not later than August the list for the following year. A system was introduced in 1913 of appointing recognised agents for the sale of books to primary

schools. The agents, who were not to be government officials, were to be appointed by Inspector in consultation with the Chairman of the District Board concerned. The conditions required for registration were as follows :

The agent should keep reasonable stock and supply them with reasonable punctuality and at reasonable prices. He should maintain at least one branch in the district. He should give no encouragement to the sale of keys. The system was said to be working smoothly.

The Junior Teachers' Manual and Senior Teachers' Manual were published in Oriya in 1916. These manuals were revised so that they might conform to the new curriculum and the instructions laid down in the Educational Code.

A sum was placed annually at the disposal of the Director for the encouragement of useful literature. Usual practice was to purchase a certain number of copies for the presentation of the schools and colleges. Among the books on which money had been spent from this grant during period 1912-1917, were an edition of the Ramayan (Rs. 920) and of Mahabharat (Rs. 2,204), the History of the Coronation Darbar (Rs. 872), an Oriya Dictionary (Rs. 2,000) and a number of books on the war.[2]

In accordance with the recommendation of the committee on the primary and secondary education, the number of members of Text Book Committee was reduced from 21 to 15 and of the Orissa Sub-Committee from 5 to 4 in 1923. The Director of Public Instruction, the Inspector of Schools of Orissa Division and the Registrar of Examinations were ex-officio members of the Text Book Committee. Of the remainder, six were elected from among their members by the Board of Secondary Education and six were nominated by the Director of Public Instruction. Prize and Library books were not to be examined by Text Book Committee henceforth. Their work was to be confined to the review of text-books[3].

In 1925 the number of members of the text-book

committee was raised from 15 to 21. Henceforth, its constitution was to be as follows :

(1) The Director of Public Instruction, President-ex-officio, (2) Four members to be elected by the Board of Secondary Education, (3) Four members to be nominated by Government from among the elected members of district boards and municipalities, (4) Four members to be nominated by Government from among the non-official members of the Legislative Council, (5) Two teachers to be nominated by the D.P.I. to represent boys' education. One teacher to be nominated by the D.P.I. to represent Girls' education, (6) Four members to be nominated by Government to represent special and unrepresented or inadequately represented interests, (4) The Registrar of Examinations, Member and Secretary-ex-officio[4].

Complaints were frequently received that too much time was involved in the examination of books. In April 1929 it was decided that, as an experiment the preliminary review of books should be abolished, and that only two reviews instead of three should be made of each book submitted. It was hoped that result of this decision would be that books sent to the Secretary would be dealt with more expeditiously.

The question of unauthorised increase in the price of certain books, was considered by a Sub-Committee and finally by the general committee. In 1929 it was decided that, it was not possible to lay down any standard and that it must be left to competition to keep down prices[5].

In 1930 orders were received from the Government, cancelling the rule that the maximum price of a text-book should be one anna for every thirty-two pages. But the attention of the Sub-Committee was drawn to the fact that between two books of equal merit, they should give preference to the cheaper[6].

In 1929, names of the books recommended by the Text-Book Committee as suitable for school libraries were included in a new edition of a hundred page booklet. This was inten-

ded to assist headmasters in selecting books for prizes or for their school libraries[7].

In 1930 the Government had ruled that if any member of the committee had any financial interest in a book submitted for the consideration of the committee, he would ipso-facts cease to be a member.[8] During the year 1931-32 this matter was again discussed by the Text Book Committee and it was resolved : (1) that in all cases it should be presumed that an author has a financial interest in his book, (2) that no book written by a member of the committee should be considered except at the written request of that member, and (3) that the rules should be amended as to render ineligible for membership of the committee persons who had a financial interest in books already on the approval list.

The commitee also resolved that, the Orissa Sub-Committee should have a member with special knowledge of the requirements of the small children. And one person was selected for this purpose.

The attention of the committee had recently been drawn to books brought in the open market which differed materially from the specimens approved by the committee. As a result, the committee had resolved as follows : (1) all publishers should be asked to give an undertaking that they would not place on the market books which did not come up to the standard of the specimens submitted to the committee, (2) they should be warned that if the undertaking was not observed, the books in question would be liable to be struck off the list without notice, (3) also such an uudertaking should be required to accompany every new book submitted for consideration, (4) explanations should be called for in those cases where instances of the kind had come to light or might come to light in future.

During the year 1930-31, a grant of Rs. 19,200 was sanctioned to Babu Gopal Chandra Praharaj of Cuttack towards the cost of publication of a very comprehensive Oriya Lexicon. Government agreed to purchase 120 copies[9].

In 1933 the Text-Book Committee appointed a Sub-Committee to draft instructions to publishers with a view to assisting them to produce better books.

Besides, the committee decided that no book should be approved as a text-book unless its price was printed on the cover, if the book was published in India, or stamped on the cover in other cases. The committee added two more clauses to the undertaking which the publishers were required to give in respect of books submitted to it for consideration. They required publishers not to alter, add to, or remove any part of such books without the sanction of the committee, to report any change in their address or in the ownership of the book, and not to raise the price of any book without the approval of the committee[10].

In 1934, the Government sanctioned as an experimental measure for two years, a new procedure for the selection of the text books. This was as follows: The Director of Public Instruction should maintain in his office a confidential list of expert reviewers, and every book received should, in the first instance, be sent for opinion to two of the experts on the list, to be choosen in such a way that no one might be able to know to whom any particular book would be sent. Before any book could be laid before the Text-Book Committee, at least one of the expert reviewers must have pronounced in its favour. To lower the cost of this procedure, a fee of five rupees was to be charged for every book submitted for approval[11].

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11. Ibid, 1934-35, para. 182.

Appendix Two

BOARD OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

During the year 1922, an important change had been introduced in the management of the Secondary Schools of Bihar and Orissa. A Board of Secondary Education had been constituted, consisting of the D.P.I., three representatives from the Senate of the Patna University, three representatives of the Legislative Council, three Principals of the three Intermediate Colleges, and persons to represent various other communities and departments of Government. The Board had administrative powers over High Schools and Intermediate Colleges. It had the right to initiate and be consulted upon the policy to be adopted with regard to such institutions under its control and to inspect the institutions either by the small Boards appointed by itself or through the agency of the Government staff. The Board had taken over the D.P.I.'s powers in the matter of recognising, subject to the concurrence of the Syndicate, the fitness to present candidates at the matriculation examination. It was empowered to submit to Government a budget of the sum required annually for grant-in-aid to the institutions under its control and to distribute in due course the sum received.

A considerable amount of work was done by the Board of Secondary Education. In 1923 two Sub-Committees were appointed, one of which examined all the inspection reports received from Inspectors and the other of which worked out the sum required for grants[3].

The Board of Secondary Education was reconstituted in 1925 and hence consisted of the following members : 1. The Director of Public Instruction, Chairman Ex-Officio, 2. three members elected by the Senate of Patna University, 3. five members elected by the non-official members of the Legislative Council, one from each division of the province

of Bihar and Orissa, 4. three Principals of New College, D. J. College, and Nalanda College, (5) a representative of female education, (6) four representatives of any community, which in the opinion of Government was not adequately represented to be nominated by the Government, (7) an Inspector of Schools to be nominated by the Government. The Registrar was the Secretary to the Board but not a member.[4]

The Board of Secondary Education displayed active interest in the improvement of High Schools. In 1932, it reviewed the position as follows :

"It is desirable that every High School should have on its staff at least two graduates who have obtained the B.Ed. Degree or Diploma in Education. It is not desired that teachers already employed should be discharged in order to make way for trained teachers, but as vacancies for graduates occur, they should be filled by holders of the B.Ed. Degree or Diploma in Education until each school has two such teachers. No untrained teachers should be appointed unless the Principals of the training colleges report that they have no suitable candidate prepared to accept the appointment which is vacant"[5].

The Board of Secondary Education held three meetings during the year 1935-36, and made four important recommendations, all of which were accepted by the Government. The first was to give efficiency grants to deserving High Schools by deducting 10 percent from the assessed grants to High Schools. The second related to the pay of teachers in recognised unaided schools which was reduced from 50 to 40 in the case of untrained graduates, from Rs. 45 to Rs. 40 in the case of I.A.C.Ts and from Rs. 35 to Rs. 30 in that of other teachers with intermediate qualifications. The third suggested that all teachers in privately managed High Schools should execute agreements in a prescribed form. The fourth gave powers to the Board to approve the personnel of the managing committees before the schools were actually

recognised, and to make such changes in them as it thought necessary from time to time[6].

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4. Ibid, 1925-26, para. 81.
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Appendix Three

(Statement showing the percentage of children at School to the total population in each district in 1935-36 taken from the Report on the progress of Education in Bihar and Orissa : 1935-36)

District	*Totat Indian Population*			*Nature of Indian children at School*			*% of Indian children at school to the total Indian population*			*Total % in the previous year*
	Male	*Female*	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Cuttack	1028097	1148536	2176633	87550	19846	107396	8.5	1.7	4.9	4.6
Balasore	480491	510064	990555	33947	7414	41361	7.07	1.5	4.2	3.9
Puri	500191	534914	1035125	31514	7066	38580	6.3	1.3	3.7	3.5
Sambal-pur	4311441	449474	880915	17162	3960	21122	4.0	.9	2.4	2.4
Angul	108916	113797	222713	7490	1627	9117	6.9	1.4	4.01	4.2
Total	2549136	2756785	5305921	177663	39913	217576	7.0	1.4	4.1	3.9

Appendix Four

(Statement showing the number of Primary Schools and the pupils attending them in Orissa in 1935-36 taken from the Report on the progress of education in Bihar and Orissa, 1935-36)

Name of the District	*Area in square miles*	*Number of managed aided and stipendary primary schools for Indian boys in*		*No, of unaided primary schools for Indian boys in*		*No. of pupils in primary schools for Indian boys in*	
		1934-35	1935-36	1934-35	1935-36	1934-35	1935-36
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Cuttack	3659	1580	1719	998	922	83205	87913
Balasore	2355	790	791	15	12	27887	29411
Puri	2492	756	739	135	110	27475	28681
Sambalpur	3824	364	368	3	2	18052	17825
Angul	1681	202	199	1	1	7976	7759

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INDEX

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